



**HOUSELESS POPULATION IN KANPUR CITY
A SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS**

ABSTRACT

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Abstract

Since the evolution of the man on the surface of the Earth, the humanity has been rendering for three basic needs of life i.e. food, clothing and shelter, but upto the 21st century, our democratic and socialistic society is unable to fulfill these needs of life, moreover, three modern additive basic requirements of life namely health, education and recreation is a long dream to be achieved. Simultaneously, modern development in terms of level of economic growth, level of education, level of health services, degree of modernisation & urbanisation, quality of housing, distribution of goods and services, available means of transportation & communication, etc., and emergence of many cities in the world as major regional or global commercial centres, shrinking man-land ratio caused by exponential population growth, and, the widening gap between the 'haves and have nots' have made the problem of houselessness very grim while at the same time providing lesser and lesser affordable housing and modern household infrastructure facilities and amenities for rural in-migrants, especially, in the large and metropolitan cities of the developing countries of the world, where, this problem is being aggravated, day by day, with the new arrival of rural poors who come in the cities in search of job that they may earn the means for their livelihood. These rural poors, after being failed to adjust in the rural habitat, when reach to the cities, generally, spend their nights in the open sky on the pavements along the roads, road-dividers, public places, bridges, etc. Most of them do not have pure air to breathe, potable water to drink, not to mention, anything about their shelter, food and clothing. After centuries of denying, rejecting and assisting the needs of the houseless people, there is still a search for solutions to the problem of houselessness.

The houselessness is an evocative social character of late modernity which encapsulates many things like destitution, displacement, poverty, unemployment, drugs addiction, physical & sexual abuse, criminality, fear, pity, crisis of infrastructure facilities, health problems, exploitation, malnutrition & under-nutrition, mental illness, etc. The houseless are archetypal outsiders, and even in a modern world that apparently celebrates plurality and difference, they are distinguished by a lack of social status,

isibility, economic crisis, etc. because the houseless has been seen as outcast and rejected section of the society, at the bottom of the social scale, disreputable and homeless. Houselessness is a social problem that has to be a key focus of recent policies development by the government; otherwise it may soon pose a black-clout upon the an society of the country and there will be flood of houseless creepers in the cities of world in very near future.

The studies that have been carried out worldwide upto now on the subject of uselessness are based only on social sample surveys and mostly on very small size of samples, and they have dealt with the general aspects of houselessness. There is no even single study traced out about this urban poorest marginalised population in India, except one or three articles. As houselessness is a wide and multifaceted phenomenon, nothing reasonably worthwhile can be propounded on the basis of few people case studies. Hence, a rigorous attempt to lessen, to some extent, the deficiency of micro-level studies pertaining to socio-economic and structural aspects of houseless population in the context of the developing countries of the world, the present study on '*Houseless population in Kanpur City: A Socio-Economic and Structural Analysis*' has been made. The attempt is also made due to the full cognizance of the fact that houseless population involved in different socio-economic and political problems of a country or a nation and that the knowledge of various facets of the houselessness is imperative for all sorts of planning and development programmes particularly in urban areas. An empirical study, based on the empirical facts collected through intensive field investigations, provides a better understanding about houselessness which will provide a milestone for further enquiry in future. The study is almost exclusively based on primary data generated through field surveys in Kanpur city. *Houseless population is defined as persons who do not live in a house, having their few possessions with them use to sleep and live in the normal places, not meant for human habitation, excluding the slums dwellers, nomadic tribal people (gipsies) and Hindu saints, and a house, being a physical structure of dwelling with roof and walls has the separate main entrance into it from the public way.*

The main objective of the study is to analyse and explain the socio-economic and demographic structure of houseless population in Kanpur city. For this, the age, sex, category, religion, marital status, migratory status, literacy & educational status, occupational status, income & expenditure, household amenities & assets, bad habits & diseases, causes & duration of houselessness, etc. have been considered and their implications have been attempted to be projected. The major thrust of this analysis is to highlight the problems caused and problems faced by houseless population in Kanpur city. To be specific, socio-cultural, economic, demographic and political problems have been considered under this analysis. However, as the socio-economic composition of the houseless population is found to be the main operator in the specified problems, special emphasis has been given to its analysis in the city. Apart from this, the socio-economic conditions of houseless population at very micro-level have also been identified and examined. Within this framework, the empirical study seeks to focus attention on the explanatory analysis of the following important issues pertaining to houseless population:

- (i) The social attributes of the houseless population which determine the characteristics of their social life.
- (ii) The economic dimensions of houselessness that exert a pervasive influence on the economic characteristics of the houseless population in Kanpur city.
- (iii) The determinants of out-migration of houseless population operating in their places of origin and the repulsive forces of their in-migration in Kanpur city.
- (iv) The socio-economic causes of houselessness that force the people to become shelterless.
- (v) The effects of the social, economic and demographic structures of houselessness as determinants of the magnitude and nature of change caused in the socio-economic characteristics of houseless population.
- (vi) The significance of availability and accessibility of infrastructural facilities and modern household amenities and assets to the houseless population in Kanpur city.
- (vii) The desirability of the recommendations to curb the problem of houselessness in the city.

fulfill the set objectives of the present research work, in this study, the following hypotheses have been formulated and tested:

Whether the facet of houselessness is a problem of male population, mentally and physically disables, working age-groups, illiterates, Hindus, widowed and separated/divorced, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and individual houseless households in the urban world.

Is houseless persons are daily casual un-skilled workers and either saving and remitting some part of their income to homes or mainly spending on food, clothing, medical services, education and miscellaneous categories, lest they may be paying money to the space owners for living & sleeping at places like footpaths, for bathing, drinking water & defecation services.

-) Whether the houselessness in the Kanpur city is the outcome of in-migration of people and their flow either from neighbouring places or distance places in the country.
-) Whether the economic reasons predominated as push factors of houseless out-migration from their places of origin into the Kanpur city in comparison to social, biological and natural factors. Similarly, the economic reasons predominated as pulling factors of in-migration of houseless population in the city than social and biological pulling factors.

Is houseless population in the city is the outcome of economic causes as compared to the social, biological and natural causes of houselessness.

-) Whether the houseless people ever get the chance to live in the house in their whole life, if they have not lived what is the duration of houselessness and places of their living/sleeping.
- i) Whether houseless persons reported the interruptions in their sleeping and living, the victims of bad habits, prostrated to various diseases, felt the weather inclementness, socially disaffiliation, need of security from various kinds of humiliation and disturbances, faced very ill-treatment by the general population,

bad experience at the various occasions and faced a lot of social, economic and infrastructural problems daily in their life.

- (viii) Whether houseless population is able to avail and access modern household infrastructural facilities and amenities, recreational facilities, and governmental services in the Kanpur city.

The multi-sided objectives and hypotheses of the study as spelt above cannot be accomplished from census data due to their inherent characteristics. Therefore, the present research work is based on the primary survey, carried out during 2012 for the collection of the data through the direct questionnaire to the respondents pertaining to the socio-economic characteristics of houseless population in Kanpur city. Having identified the respondents in prior visits in each ward (because the boundary of the ward has been kept as the smallest administrative unit and houseless household has been taken as the smallest unit of data collection), the individual slips were used to ease the task of survey in the city. Among the total 110 wards of the Kanpur city, the houseless population was found only in the 96 wards and Cantonment area while 14 wards, Armapur estate, Aerodrome, and C.O.D. (Central Ordinance Depot) do not witnessed the houselessness during the survey in the city.

In the present study, the houseless household has been taken as the unit of enquiry. Initially it was planned to select 30% households randomly for each ward. However, the three pilot surveys were carried out in the city during May, August and November in 2011, in these surveys, it was observed that the number of houseless households vary from time to time and place to place even within a day. The four periods of time in a day i.e. early morning (6 am to 9 am), noon (12 pm to 3 pm), evening (6 pm to 9 pm) and late night (9 pm 12 am) are taken to observe the number of houseless households, in which two periods (i.e. early morning and late night) experienced the large number of houseless households due to space available for sleeping/living after closing of shops/markets and to take rest after working as a casual workers in day time, while the other two periods (i.e. noon and evening) witnessed the small number of houseless households due to opening of shops/markets and the working hours as people mostly

ed to go for jobs during day time. Moreover, some houseless households are very difficult to be identified at all, at any particular place and time due to lack of their fixed address and hidden in nature; in every zone, the wards were visited before drawing the final sample of households. During these visits, it was noticed that this is a highly dynamic mobile population which is difficult to track and to estimate accurately; therefore, 10% houseless households were considered as hidden. Keeping these things in mind, the sample of 25% houseless households were randomly selected for the survey.

The survey consisted of 1384 sampled houseless households in the Kanpur city areas the total sampled houseless population of the city was 2353 which is summation of total sampled houseless households (1384 persons) and houseless households' family members (969 persons). Moreover, out of the total sampled houseless households (1384), only 228 houseless households are living the life of houselessness with their family members but the strength of houseless households' family members in 228 houseless households with family is 969 in the city while all remaining houseless households (1156) are individual houseless households. That is why; most of the analysis of the data in the present study has been done on houseless household level, but analysis of the data on age, marital status, literacy status, working status, monthly income and morbidities of houseless households' family members has been made separately from houseless respondents to know their status in this regard.

The present study has been set into nine chapters. The first chapter deals the theoretical framework of houselessness, its types and various socio-economic causes and consequences. The second chapter contains a critical appraisal of brief resume of the published research work related to the houselessness. The third chapter deals with aims and objectives of the study, sample and survey design, contents of the survey and methodology. The practical difficulties & problems faced during field work and limitations of data have also been categorically pointed out under this chapter. The chapter also embodies a brief account of the physical and human geography of the Kanpur city. The social characteristics of houseless population, such as, age & sex

composition, marital status, caste-category & religious composition, migration status, literacy level, etc. have been analysed in the fourth chapter.

The chapter fifth examines the economic characteristics of houseless population, like, working status, nature of works, duration of joblessness, professional activities, income, savings, expenditures, remittances, etc. The chapter sixth presents causes of movement of houseless population from their places of origin and reasons of their influx in the city. The socio-economic causes of houselessness have been also examined, in detail, in this chapter. The chapter seventh deals with the socio-economic problems faced by houseless population in the Kanpur city. The magnitude of infrastructure facilities & amenities, like, durable goods, clothing, sources of water and defecation, recreational activities, governmental services, etc. accessed and availed by the houseless population in the city, have been undertaken in the chapter eight. The ninth chapter, being the last, contains a brief summary of the study and conclusions drawn therefrom along with the measures recommended, and, preventions & interventions suggested to mitigate the problems faced by the houseless in the Kanpur city and to overcome the problem of houselessness.

Based on the overall assessment of the study the following important inferences have been drawn pertaining to the socioeconomic characteristics of houseless population, determinants of migration of houseless population, causes of houselessness, impact of houselessness on the life of houseless population, houselessness and infrastructure facilities on in the present research work:

(A) Socio-economic characteristics of houseless population

- (i) Houselessness has been seen as individuals' problem rather than the problem of houseless families because out of the total sample of houseless households surveyed i.e. 1384, only 228 houseless households have been registered as the houseless with families, while 1156 houseless households have been identified as individual houseless persons, their families living either at their places of origin or having no family at all.

There is a usual misconception among the general population that houselessness is mainly the outcome of mental illness, but the study finds that the problem of houselessness is found primarily among the population of normal mental status (93.00 percent) rather than among mentally ill people (7.00 percent).

The proportion of houseless male population is exceedingly much greater than the houseless female population in the city which proved that the facet of houselessness in the urban world is male oriented because out of the total houseless respondents in the city, 91.79 percent were males and only 8.21 percent were females.

A large mass of houseless population lies in the working age-group (19-64 years of age), while a little fraction of houseless respondents is composed of the juvenile (below 19 years of age) and senile (above 65 years of age) population because nearly 39.00 percent houseless persons belong to the adult age-groups, whereas the juvenile and senile respondents together accounted only 11.07 percent. But the proportion of juvenile houseless population (59.00 percent) among the houseless households' family members has been exponentially higher in comparison to senile and adult age-group houseless respondents.

About fifty percent houseless people were married and the ratio of married and unmarried houseless males is one and half times more than the houseless females. But among the widowed and separated/divorced houseless persons, houseless females registered greater ratio than the males, namely four times among the widowed and nearly double among the separated/divorced of that of males.

Hindus are found to be in majority among all houseless population, seven times which of the Muslims as they accounted 82.84 percent, while Muslims and other religious communities are identified 11.75 and 0.29 percent respectively.

The majority of houseless population is composed of OBC people, followed by the general category population, scheduled castes population and scheduled tribes population, as the houseless people of OBC category outnumbered the houseless persons of general as well as ST categories.

- (viii) The rate of illiteracy among the houseless respondents is very high as only 38.58 percent houseless people are literates, in which more than two-third have their education only upto the primary level. The proportion of illiteracy among the houseless households' family members is even much higher than that of houseless respondents; among literate houseless households' family members, number of people educated upto primary level is almost four times greater than the total proportion of secondary, senior secondary and graduate people in the city.
- (ix) Among the socio-economic and biological reasons responsible for the illiteracy of houseless people, about three-fifth illiteracy rate is determined by economic reasons, followed by social (36.34 percent) and biological (4.29 percent) reasons of illiteracy.
- (x) Most of the houseless respondents are observed as working population, the ratio of houseless workers being exceeded to that of houseless non-workers. Moreover, the ratio of workers among houseless males is recorded even much higher than that of non-workers i.e. 87.75 and 12.25 percent, whereas, it is noted to be vice versa among the houseless females viz., 45.28 and 54.72 percent. Moreover, maximum proportion of non-workers (25.08 percent) has been recorded among houseless households' family members in comparison to workers (74.92 percent).
- (xi) Unfortunately, most of the houseless workers (87.39 percent) are found to be unskilled and, thus, engaged in petty works like rickshaw pulling, rag picking, street vending, loading & un-loading, cooking, cobbling, construction works, etc.
- (xii) More than ninety percent houseless workers are recorded as daily workers in comparison to permanent and seasonal workers because these people neither have same type of work on a regular basis, nor have continuity of working days in any type of work due to limited employment opportunities for them.
- (xiii) Mental illness (23.01 percent) is observed as the main cause of unemployment for the non-working houseless population. Likewise, the lack of jobs and poor health also constitute more or less same negative restrictive barriers for the houseless non-workers in the way of getting employed, figuring out 21.02 and 18.18 percent respectively.

- v) In the professional activities, more than two-third of the houseless workers are found occupied with three activities, namely rickshaw pulling, construction works and begging, with the remaining proportion of houseless working population being engaged in activities like loading & un-loading, rag picking, serving as waiters, street vending, owing *pan masala khokha*, etc.
- iv) More than fifty percent houseless workers are found able to get employment regularly for the whole month, while 3.62, 12.36, and 10.05 percent have reported to have worked respectively for 29-25 days, 24-20 days, and 19-15 days per month, whereas 13.74 percent are recorded as unable to get any work throughout the month.
- i) The maximum proportion of houseless working population use to work for 8 to 10 hours per day, followed by those working for 10 to 12 hours per day, their combined share accounting to 65.22 percent. Moreover, 54.23 percent houseless persons are found to have availed employment opportunities for the whole year, with 13.74 percent having no access to any type of work all through their life.
- ii) The houseless respondents surveyed in the city have less than rupees three thousand per capita income (₹ 2885.25) per month. On the other hand, more than fifty percent houseless persons have ₹ 50-100 per day expenditure, followed by those having daily expenditure of less than ₹ 50 (22.47 percent), ₹ 100-150 (15.82 percent), ₹ 150-200 (2.31 percent), and above ₹ 200 (1.52 percent), with 7.08 percent houseless people having no expenditure at all.
- i) The houseless persons who remitted some part of their income to their homes, regularly and irregularly, are recorded to be more than sixty percent, whereas nearly forty percent did never remit any amount of money.
- x) A remarkable proportion (94.01 percent) of houseless population has incurred monthly expenditure on food while 5.99 percent happen to have no food expenditure at all. Regarding expenditure on clothing, 82.27 percent houseless persons were found to have spent on their clothing against 17.73 percent who spent nothing on clothing. In case of medical and health services, 60.00 percent people have monthly expenditure while 40.00 percent have incurred no expenditure in this regard. In the field of

education, only 4.54 percent were found to have spent for the cause whereas 95.46 percent witnessed no expenditure on education. For the miscellaneous category, 94.07 percent have expenses on the miscellaneous things against 5.93 percent being recorded to have no miscellaneous expenses. Moreover, more than three-fourth (76.07 percent) expenditure done by the houseless people goes to food, followed by miscellaneous category (18.83 percent), clothing (4.24 percent), medical services (0.58 percent) and education (0.28 percent).

(xx) More than one-third (35.37 percent) of the houseless people used to pay money to the space owners for living & sleeping at places like footpaths, for bathing, drinking water & defecation services, whereas 7.03 percent houseless persons use these places by offering their services in exchange like taking up the responsibility of security of the shops & houses where they live in or doing some domestic chores, etc. of the space owners.

(B) Determinants of migration of houseless population

- (i) Out of the total houseless households surveyed, more than ninety percent have been found to be migrants, in which 92.35 percent are males and 7.05 percent are females.
- (ii) Most of the houseless people who have originated within Kanpur city have migrated from other wards of the city (62.15 percent) to those wards where the survey was carried out in comparison to those having belonged to the same ward (37.85 percent).
- (iii) Among the houseless persons who have originated in various blocks of Kanpur Nagar district, nearly one-third (62.37 percent) have been originated only in the Kalyanpur block (Kanpur city itself is part of this block), while more than twenty percent do not know their place of origin, remaining having migrated from other blocks of the district.
- (iv) Among the houseless people who have originated in different tahsils of Kanpur Nagar district, about two-third (67.41 percent) have originated in Kanpur tahsil (Kalyanpur block itself is part of this tahsil) and 19.65 percent happen to be ignorant of their places of origin.

- y) The houselessness originated in the city, is brought from different districts of India, in which, more than one-fifth (23.72 percent) houseless people have originated within the Kanpur Nagar district. Further, the Kanpur Nagar district, Unnao and Fatehpur districts produces more than forty percent (40.46 percent) houseless migrants out of the total migrants migrated from different districts of India.
- i) More than four-fifth (88.78 percent) of the houseless migrants who have migrated from various states of India have originated within the state of Uttar Pradesh. Moreover, out of the total houseless migrants in the city, 99.34 percent have originated within India, with only 0.66 percent being supplied by two other countries namely, Nepal (0.59 percent) and Bangladesh (0.07 percent).
- ii) The majority of the houseless population in the city has its places of origin in different districts of Uttar Pradesh excluding the Kanpur Nagar district (60.34 percent), followed by those having originated within the Kanpur city (18.40 percent), within the Kanpur Nagar district excluding the Kanpur city (10.63 percent), within Indian states excluding Uttar Pradesh (9.97 percent) and other countries (0.66 percent).
- i) The economic reasons (92.69 percent) predominated as push factors of houseless out-migration from their places of origin into the Kanpur city in comparison to social and biological factors (5.83 and 1.76 percent respectively), and natural calamities (0.25 percent). Among the economic pushing factors of out-migration, about fifty percent (49.22 percent) houseless people in the city are the outcome of unemployment, absence of regular work, and low wages at their places of origin, while among social pushing factors, more than three-fourth houseless migrants have migrated due to having no house/space, no family, family tensions and/or because of marriage. The mental illness (95.35 percent) is the main reason of out-migration among the biological pushing factors.
- x) Among the pulling factors of in-migration of houseless population, more than nine-tenth (95.33 percent) of the houseless in-migrants in the city are pulled by economic factors, with only a very little proportion being pulled by the social and biological factors (2.83 and 1.85 percent respectively). Moreover, among economic pull factors

of in-migration of houseless population in the city, 40.35 percent houseless in-migrants have come for employment opportunities i.e. jobs and regular work and 28.67 percent for the income viz., high wages and quick payment, while entertainment and marriage among the social pull factors of in-migration have attracted 87.10 percent houseless people. The mental illness in the biological pull factors has resulted into 91.36 percent houseless in-migrants in the city.

(C) Causes of houselessness

- (i) Nearly three-fourth (72.11 percent) of the houseless population in the city is the outcome of economic factors, and one-fifth (23.73 percent) of the social factors, while biological and natural calamities caused 3.97 and 0.19 percent houselessness respectively. Among the economic causes of houselessness in the city, the high rent of housing, mortgage, low income and poverty combinedly caused more than half (56.63 percent) of the houselessness in the city, while instability, no family, no siblings and no proof of ID among the social causes altogether also produced more than half (56.60 percent) incidence of houselessness in the city. More than fourth-fifth (86.32 percent) houselessness in the city is the result of poor health and mental illness among the biological causes of houselessness.
- (ii) About three-fourth (71.76 percent) of the houseless persons preferred to live and sleep on the pavements (33.30 percent), ledges of shops and houses (22.42 percent), and streets of residential colonies (16.04 percent). On the other hand, houseless people who have shifted their places of living once and twice recorded to be more than fifty percent (57.66 percent), while 1.95 percent houseless persons never changed their place, whereas 4.84 percent persons used to change their places of living on a daily basis. Moreover, the houseless people who have shifted their places of living from three times to more than ten times altogether accounted 35.54 percent.
- (iii) Among the houseless people who have gotten a chance to live in the house, more than fourth-fifth has lived in the house once upon a time in their life. Majority of houseless population (38.21 percent) has never been in the shelter, with one-third (35.89 percent) of houseless people having usually get the chance to live in house within a month or

after 1 to 2 months, while 17.66 percent persons got the chance to live in the house after 2 to 12 months, whereas 8.25 percent got opportunity of the house life after 1-5 years and sometimes even after more than 5 years.

- v) The people who have been houseless since birth accounted 14.44 percent among the total houseless population in the city, with three-fourth proportion of houseless population having experienced the life of houselessness for less than 5 years to 30 years, whereas 11.47 percent houseless people have been living as houseless for more than 30 years.

v) Impact of houselessness on the life of houseless population

-) Out of the total houseless population, 87.40 houseless persons reported the interruptions in their sleeping and living. Among the causes of interruption, four were found to be predominant, namely inclement weather, air pollution, mosquitoes, and fear of theft, violence & death, which combinedly caused interruption to more than half (52.03 percent) of the houseless population.
- i) About nine-tenth (87.34 percent) of the houseless people have reported as the victims of bad habits, among these, nearly forty percent people used to chew tobacco; more than one-fourth have been indulged in smoking and 15.05 percent in drinking alcohol.
- ii) Three-fifth of the houseless respondents is prostrated to various diseases. Among this morbid population, five diseases namely asthma, skin infestation, foot problems, back aches and gastroenteritis are the most common which causes illness to more than one-fourth of the houseless persons. While, the proportion of diseased houseless households' family members (2.79 percent) is very negligible, and the ratios of diseased male-female houseless households' family members are 3.19 and 2.15 percent respectively.
- v) More than one-tenth (11.67 percent) of the houseless population is physically disabled in which 6.82 percent are handicapped by legs. Among others, 17.25 percent houseless population is suffering from mental illness, in which depression (6.77 percent) and trauma (5.01 percent) are the most prevalent problems.

- (v) Houseless people have to face a lot of social, economic and infrastructural problems daily, their respective shares being 17.18, 36.61, and 46.20 percent. Among infrastructural problems, 73.39 percent houseless people confronted daily with the lack of shelter to live and sleep, lack of toilet facilities and water; among economic problems, 80.73 percent houseless persons faced daily the problems of unemployment, low wages, and poor hygiene; while more than one-third and one-fifth of the houseless people faced police brutality and municipal torment as daily social problems.
- (vi) Majority of houseless people (97.05 percent) felt the weather inclementness, in which the rainy season (41.80 percent) was reported more inclement than the winter (27.65 percent) and summer (27.60 percent).
- (vii) Nearly one-fifth of the houseless population is socially disaffiliated. However, among socially affiliated houseless people, about three-fifth (59.40 percent) have their expressive ties with their siblings/wives and parents.
- (viii) A huge proportion (96.09 percent) of houseless population needed security from various kinds of humiliation and disturbances in the life, wherein about one-fourth houseless persons needed protection each from public harassment and police brutality.
- (ix) About three-fourth (74.77 percent) houseless people reported to have faced very ill-treatment by the general population in which 45.35 percent persons faced the police brutality, 25.63 percent houseless people confronted ill treatment by the various officials, followed by gangs (15.25 percent), and torment by local people (13.77 percent).
- (x) The two-third (67.28 percent) of the houseless people reported to have bad experience at the occasions of VIP visits, festivals and various function, wherein more than half (54.97 percent) were badly affected alone by the VIP visits, followed by national festivals (29.90 percent) and other functions (15.12 percent).

(E) Houselessness and infrastructure facilities

- (i) Most of the people the relatives of the houseless people (84.45 percent) have houses while 15.55 percent do not have houses. It shows the occurrence of the problem of houselessness in other areas as well.

- i) Only 84.45 percent houseless population possesses some basic durable goods in which 55.16 percent people possess only bedding items and cooking pots. Availability of mobile phones is also found in significant proportion (8.23 percent) among houseless people, followed by pressure cookers, mats, stoves, hand watches, cycles and others. On the other hand, more than one-fourth of the houseless population has the sharing items each of scarves/*lungi/gamchha*, blankets, and pots, while toiletry items and quilts are possessed by 11.30 and 6.00 percent houseless people respectively.
- ii) Fifty percent houseless persons have only one pair of wearing clothes, followed by those having two pairs (40.65 percent), while more than two pairs of wearing clothes are possessed by only 7.19 percent houseless persons.
- v) The houseless people who have been taking the drinking water from public sources accounted three-fourth proportion, whereas 23.67 percent used private sources for drinking water. Further, among the sources of drinking water, about half of the houseless people took drinking water from hand-pumps and one-fourth from water-tapes, followed by those having their drinking water requirements fulfilled through water-coolers, hotels, submersibles, water-tankers, tube-wells and others. Moreover, the sources of drinking water for about two-third (63.08 percent) houseless persons are located within the circumference of 100 metres from their places of living.
- v) Among the types of bathing places in terms of open and closed, 84.20 percent houseless population used to bathe in the open places, whereas 15.80 percent have access to the closed places for bathing. On the other hand, in terms of using public and private places for bathing, 86.78 percent houseless people bathed at the public places rather than private places (12.22 percent). Among the various bathing places, 83.27 percent houseless population used to bathe at the hand-pumps and water-tapes, followed by those bathing at *sulabh complexes* (9.96 percent), night shelter homes (3.29 percent), temples (2.10 percent) and submersibles (1.39 percent).
- i) The bathing facilities available for the houseless population in the city are located within the perimeter of 200 metres distance for three-fourth (74.27 percent) of the houseless population, while, remaining people have to travel for more than 200

metres. In addition to it, more than half of the houseless persons bathed daily, whereas more than one-third used to bathe 2 or 3 times in a week, followed by those bathing once in a week (7.66 percent) 1 or 2 times in a month (3.36 percent), and those who have never bathed (0.69 percent).

- (vii) Majority of the houseless people (54.50 percent) defecated in the closed spaces, whereas 45.50 percent have to use open spaces for defecation. Among the various places for defecation, more than one-third houseless people preferred *sulabh complexes* and about one-fifth houseless people defecated each in open fields and pavements, followed by those using sewer lines, railways tracts, night shelter homes toilets and make-shift toilets.
- (viii) During non-working days, more than half of the houseless people remain busy in personal maintenance and/or getting relaxed, and one-third persons passed their time in gossiping, meeting friends, family & relatives, and in sleeping.
- (ix) Only one-fourth houseless persons have some recreational activities in which 15.59 percent used to see television, 9.73 percent see the cinema, and one percent have interest in listening radio, going on picnics, and playing cards.
- (x) Houseless people who have some helping sources in case of emergency are accounted 53.79 percent, while 46.21 percent do not have any source to avail help during emergency. Among those who could access help in emergency, one-fourth houseless people received help from different individuals, followed by those having helped by friends (14.70 percent), family (6.02 percent), relatives (5.40 percent) and others (1.44 percent).
- (xi) Fifty percent houseless population availed some basic governmental services in which 51.66 percent houseless people have voter ID cards, more than one-third have the ration cards, 2.13 percent possessed the BPL cards, 1.06 percent bore the UID cards and only 1.24 percent have accessed various other governmental services.

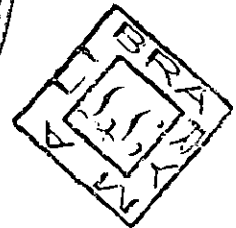
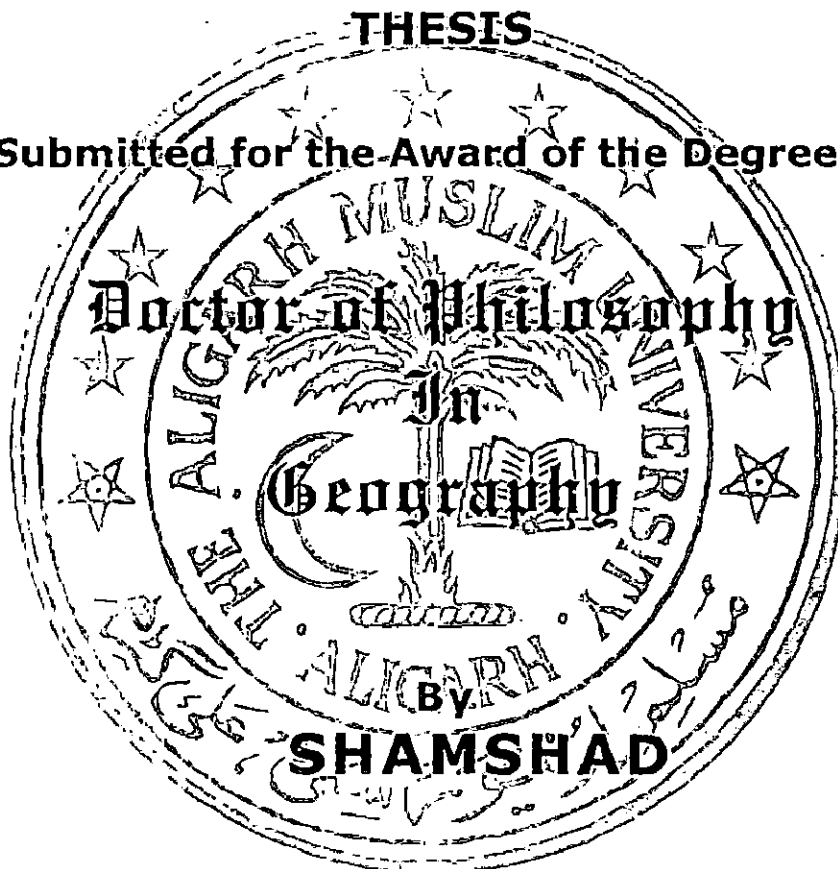


**HOUSELESS POPULATION IN KANPUR CITY
A SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS**

THESIS

Submitted for the Award of the Degree of

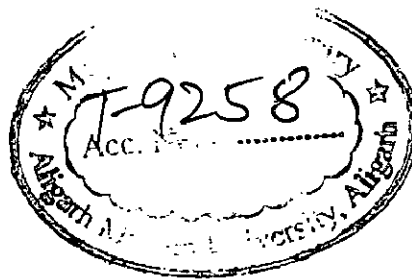
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In
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**Under the Supervision of
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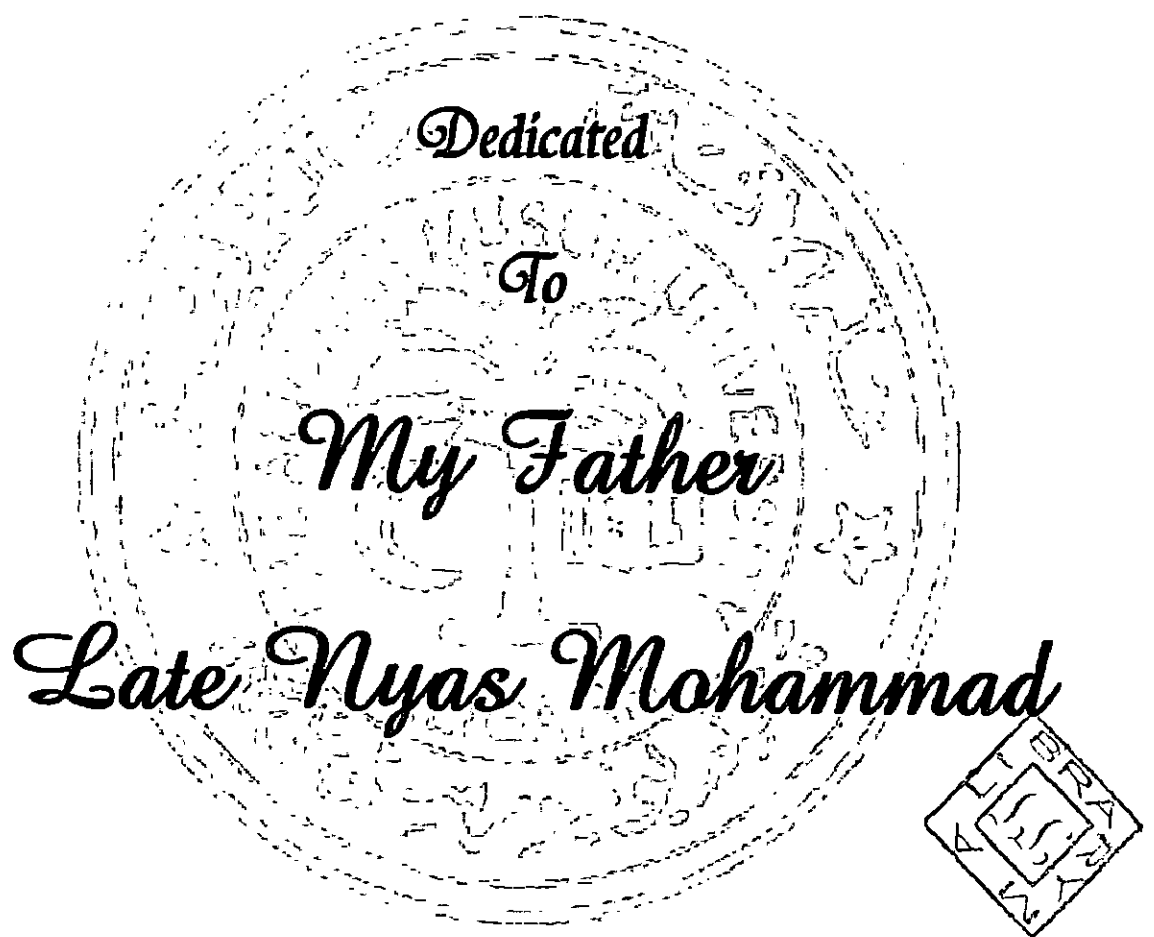


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“Be kind to parents, and the near kinsman, and to orphans, and to the needy, and to the neighbour who is of kin, and to the neighbour who is a stranger, and to the companion at your side, and to the traveller, and to [slaves] that your right hands own.
Surely God loves not the proud and boastful such as are niggardly,
and bid other men to be niggardly, and themselves conceal
the bounty that God has given them.”

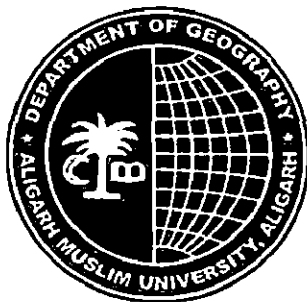
(Islam: Qur'an 4.36-37)

“Blessed is he who considers the poor; the Lord delivers him in the day of trouble.”

(Judaism and Christianity: Psalm 41.1)

“He is liberal who gives to anyone who asks for alms,
to the homeless, distressed man who seeks food;
success comes to him in the challenge of battle,
and for future conflicts he makes an ally.”

(Hinduism: Rig Veda 10.117.4)



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June 23, 2014

DECLARATION

I, **Shamshad**, declare that the work embodied in the doctoral thesis entitled "**Houseless Population in Kanpur City: A Socio-Economic and Structural Analysis**" has been prepared by me under the supervision of Prof. Jabir Hasan Khan, Professor of Geography, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh. No part of this Ph.D. thesis has formed the basis for the award of any other degree or fellowship previously.



(Shamshad)

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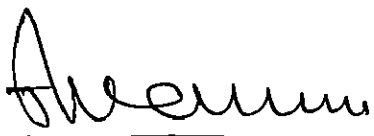


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CERTIFICATE

I certify that the Ph.D. thesis on “**Houseless Population in Kanpur City: A Socio-Economic and Structural Analysis**” has been completed by **Mr. Shamshad** for the award of the degree of **Doctor of Philosophy in Geography**, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh, under my supervision and recommend that it may be forwarded to the examiners for evaluation.


(Prof. Jabir Hasan Khan)
Supervisor

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(Shamshad)

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List of Abbreviations

Abbreviations	Description
AAA	Aashray Adhikar Abhiyan
AAV	Antyodaya Anna Yojana
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AMS	American Mathematical Society
APY	Anna Poorna Yojana
ARWSP	Accelerated Rural Water Supply Programmes
ATM	Automated teller Machine
AZ	Arizona (U.S. state)
B & B	Bed & Breakfast
BAWO	Bundesarbeitsgemeinschaft Wohnungslosenhilfe
BIDS	Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies
BPL	Below Poverty Line
C.O.D.	Central Ordinance Depot
CA	California (U.S. state)
CADP	Command Area Development Programme
CE	Christian era
CLG	Continuous Learning Group
CMHC	Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation
CO	Colorado (U.S. state)
CSH	Centre of Sciences Humanities
CSIRO	Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation
CT	Connecticut (U.S. state Known as New England)
CUCS	Center for Urban Community Services
DC	Daniel Collamore (Lexington Books, DC Heath and company)
DC	District of Columbia, (Washington D.C., formally district of District of Columbia)
DG	Directorate General
DJ	Disc-Jockey in which a person who announces and plays popular recorded music

DPAP	Drought Prone Area Programme
DPU	Development Planning Unit
	East
AS	Employment Assurance Scheme
NHR	European Network for Housing Research
OH	European Observatory on Homelessness
THOS	European Typology on Homelessness and Housing Exclusion
UROSTAT	European Statistics
WS	Economically Weaker Section
AO	The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
EANTSA	Federation Europeenne d'Associations Nationales Travaillant avec les Sans-Abri (European Federation of National Organisations working with the Homeless)
WP	Food for Work Programme
GAO	Government Accountability Office
G.T. Road	Grant Truck Road
GK	Gawad Kalinga
GOVT	Government
GSS	General Social Survey
GVRD	Greater Vancouver Regional District
ICSH	Scottish Council for Single Homeless
ICV	Hepatitis C Virus
IDU	Homeless Drug Users
IIG	High Income Group
IIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IMSO	Her Majesty's Stationery Office
IUD	Housing and Urban Development
IUDCO	Housing and Urban Development Corporation
IAP	Intensive Agriculture Area Programme
ADP	Intensive Agriculture Development Programme
IAY	Indira Awas Yojana
ICDS	Integrated Child Development Services

ID	Identity Card
IGMSY	Indira Gandhi Matritva Sahyog Yojana
IGNOAPS	Indira Gandhi National Old Age Pension Scheme
IIT	Indian Institute of Technology
IL	Illinois
IL	Illinois (U.S. state)
ILO	The International Labour Organization
IPPR	Institute for Public Policy Research
IRDP	Integrated Rural Development Programme
JANAC	Journal of the Association of Nurses in Aids Care
JNNURM	Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission
JRY	Jawahar Rozgar Yojana
JSSK	Janani Sishu Suraksha Karyakram
JSY	Janani Suraksha Yojana
JTP	Job Training Programme
KDA	Kanpur Development Authority
KNN	Kanpur Nagar Nigam
LIG	Low Income Group
LPG	Liquified Petroleum Gas
MA	Massachusetts (U.S. state)
MD	Maryland (U.S. state)
MDMS	Mid Day Meal Scheme
MEH	Multiple Exclusion Homelessness
MI	Michigan (U.S. state)
MIG	Middle Income Group
MN	Minnesota (U.S. state)
MNREGS	Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme
MOSAIC	Multilingual Orientation Service Association for Immigrant Communities
MV	Mount Vernon (City of Louis in California)
MW	Mega Watt

N	North
NCHR	National Campaign for Housing Rights
NDWM	National Drinking Water Mission
NFBS	National Family Benefit Schemes
NFSA	National Food Security Act
NFSM	National Food Security Mission
NFWP	National Food for Work Programme
NGO	Non-governmental Organisations
NH	National Highway
NHM	National Horticulture Mission
NIMH	National Institute of Mental Health
NJ	New Jersey (U.S. state)
NORC	National Opinion Research Center
NRHM	National Rural Health Mission
NRV	Nehru Rozgar Yojana
NSAP	National Social Assistance Programme
NUHHP	National Urban Housing & Habitat Policy
NY	New York
OBC	Other Backward Caste
OHCHR	The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
OW	Other Worker
PDF	Portable Document Format
PMGY	Pradhan Mantri Gramodya Yojana
PMIEUPEP	Prime Minister Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programme
QEH	Queen Elizabeth Hospital
RAY	Rajiv Awas Yojana
RGSEAG	Rajiv Gandhi Scheme for Empowerment of Adolescent Girls
RTES	Rail India Technical and Economic Service
RKVY	Rashtriya Krishi Vikas Yojana
RLEG	Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme

RSBY	Rashtriye Swastha Bima Yojana
RSC	Refugee Studies Centre
RTE	Right to Education Act
SC	Scheduled Caste
SEU	Social Exclusion Unit
SGRY	Sampoorna Grammen Rojgar Yojana
SJGSY	Swarn Jayanti Gram Swarojgar Yojana
SJSRY	Swarna Jayanti Sahri Rozgar Yojana
SPARC	The Society for the Promotion of Area Resource Centres
SRO	Single Room Occupancy
ST	Scheduled Tribe
STD	Sexually Transmitted Disease
SUWE	Scheme for Urban Wage Employment
TB	Tuberculosis
TN	Nashville (Capital of U.S. state of Tennessee)
TPP	Twenty Point Programme
TV	Television
TX	Texas (U.S. state)
UK	United Kingdom
UP	Uttar Pradesh
USA	United States of America
UA	Urban Agglomeration
UHS	Universal Health Insurance Scheme
UID	Unique Identification Card
UKBA	UK Border Agency
UN	The United Nations
UNCHS	United Nations Centre for Human Settlements
UNDP	The United Nations Development Programme
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNESCO	The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNHCR	The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	The United Nations International Children Emergency Fund
UPHDB	Uttar Pradesh Housing Development Board
URL	Universal Resource Locator
USGAO	United States General Accounting Office
USHUD	U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development
VCL	Virtual Computing Laboratory
VGBS	Village Grain Bank Scheme
VIP	Very Important Person
VT	Vermont (U.S. state)
WB	The World Bank
WC	Workers' Compensation
WFP	The World Food Programme
WHO	The World Health Organisation
YMCA	Young Men's Christian Association

Introduction

The various scholars and scholarships in large measure have been shaping the attitudes and legislations towards the poor, the destitute, the vagrant, the houseless, and various others belonging to the marginalised sections of the society, for a long time, to be more favourable to them in order to improve their standard and well being. But, like everything else having its pros and cons, the problem of houselessness and the measures to eradicate it have also not always evoked the sympathies for the houseless but have also been criticised by many like Adam Smith (1978), who depicted the shaping of the economic market place as growing out of and responding to the natural laws, and hence criticised the poor laws as interfering with the natural movement of labour. Charles Darwin's theory of natural selection in 'Origin of Species' (1859) in terms of how great is the power of man in accumulating by his selection successive slight variations was seized upon by Herbert Spencer (1878) in his evolutionary interpretation of the growth and development of society. Robert Thomas Malthus (1966) saw population growth as responding to the waxing and waning of food and other needed resources, and complained that the aid to the inferior members of society interfered with the natural control of population size and the quality of those who survived. Max Weber (1971) in his essay, 'The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism', clarified the inter-relationships among the beliefs in predestination, God given talents, and the sin of idleness. Hard work and commitment to work were the duties of the godly man and in turn led to evidence of the status of one's grace. Even as the religious interpretation of work waned in the 19th century, the expectation of hard work continued unabated, and the lack of resources by individuals and families was interpreted as laziness and a lack of faith in the system. This socio-economic philosophy, now called 'Social Darwinism', was promoted and preached from the pulpits of Protestant churches and the lecture halls of the better known universities in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. For example, Professor William Graham Sumner of Yale University of United States and Frederick Jackson Turner of Wisconsin and Harvard promoted Social Darwinism to the existing social and economic order, especially Turner in his theory of the frontier and the virtues of the frontiersman (Crouse, 1986). However, after centuries of denying, rejecting as well as assisting the needs of the houseless people, the search still goes on to find the solutions to cure the problem of houselessness, because the failure to address

such issues would seem to suggest that the advent of postmodernism in radical scholarship has done little to advance the cause of spatial equilibrium and social justice.

Postmodernism denotes a set of theoretical ideas demonstrating skepticism toward modernist universalisms, meta-narratives, and grand theory. Thus, after the introduction of post-modernism in geography, the geographers in their studies have laid down emphasis on horizontal disparities and vertical inequalities such as poverty, hunger, houselessness, slums, health, unemployment, begging, discrimination, crime, environmental degradation, etc. These views do not represent an attempt to be prescriptive of all geographical researches but are intended to indicate clearly the principles and areas of concern for applied geography. It is a matter of individual conscience whether geographers study topics such as the iconography of landscapes or the optimum location of centers of habitat, health, education, market, etc., but the principle underlying the kind of useful geography espoused by most applied geographers is a commitment to improve the existing social, economic, and environmental conditions. This is the focus of applied geography. Thus, D.M Smith (1973) stated that there is a long history of professional philanthropic anxiety over the existence of social problems like poverty, the condition in the slums, the decline of conventional morality, environmental pollution, civil liberties, crime, drug addiction, and so on, and even the society is changing and new aspirations and priorities are emerging. Therefore, adequate information on areal variations in the incidence of social conditions have to be gathered and show everything else on the maps practically so that the social well-being of the people living in a specific area can be meaningfully differentiated from those living in other areas with respect to this dimension and its various component parts. According to P.L. Knox (1975) economic development and levels of consumption have reached a point where the marginal utility of consumer goods and services is beginning to decrease. So, patterns of demand have extended to embrace satisfactions which are often more collective and qualitative in nature, such as those related to environmental quality, social welfare and recreational facilities. At the same time, there has been a growing concern for those sections of the society whose relative lack of command over resources and lack of opportunity and power leave them the victims rather than the beneficiaries of economic growth. That is why the social problems are reflected in the mass media features and discussions on the environment, houselessness, delinquency, equity, poverty, and so on. Therefore, most of the territorial policies, at the greatest form, now aim at improving the local well-being not only in relation to industrial location, land use and

transportation but also in relation to health, housing, food, education, recreational facilities and over all social welfare or development.

Moreover, by going through the Kaleidoscope of human history, it may be very easily traced out that the man has faced the problem of shelter since his advent on the Earth, but with the emergence of many cities in the world as major regional or global commercial centres, shrinking man-land ratio caused by exponential population growth, and, the widening gap between the 'haves and have nots' have made the problem of houselessness very grim, especially, in the large and metropolitan cities of the developing countries of the world, where this problem is being aggravated, day by day, with the arrival of rural poor who migrate to cities in search of jobs that they may earn their livelihood. When these rural poor come to cities, after being failed to adjust in the rural habitat, they generally spend their nights under the open sky on the pavements along the roads, road-dividers, public places, bridges, etc. Most of them do not even have pure air to breathe or potable water to drink, not to mention anything about their shelter, food and clothing. The houseless population is, thus, defined as persons who do not live in a house having very few possessions with them used to sleep and live in the informal places not meant for human habitation, excluding slum dwellers, nomadic tribal people (gypsies) and Hindu saints, and the house being a physical structure of dwelling with roof and walls as a separate unit having the separate main entrance into it from the public way.

In this research work, an in-depth study of issues like socio-economic characteristics of houseless population, causes of houselessness, availability and accessibility of infrastructure facilities & amenities to the houseless population, the problems faced by the houseless and the measures to overcome those problems, has been made. The study is based on primary data generated through a comprehensive field survey carried out in the Kanpur city during 2012 through the direct questionnaire to the respondents pertaining to the socio-economic characteristics of houseless population. Having identified, during prior visits, the houseless households in each ward, the individual slips were used to ease the task of survey in the city. Among the total 110 wards of the Kanpur city, the houseless population was found only in 96 wards and Cantonment area while 14 wards, Armapur estate, Aerodrome and C.O.D. (Central Ordinance Depot) did not witness the problem of houselessness during the survey in the city. The boundary of the ward in the city has been taken as a the smallest administrative unit of the study and houseless household has been taken as the smallest unit of data collection while the collected data were spatially presented zone wise in the city for easy understanding of the facts

and figures. From each ward of the city, 25 percent houseless households were randomly selected as sample for the survey. Thus, the survey included 1384 houseless households, whereas the total number of sampled houseless population of the city was 2,353 which is summation of total houseless households (1384) and houseless households' family members (969).

The present study has been organised into nine chapters. The first chapter deals with the theoretical framework of houselessness, its synonymous words/concepts, typology of houselessness and its various socio-economic causes and consequences. The second chapter contains a critical appraisal of brief resume of the published research work on the problem of houselessness to understand the variety of meanings, definitions, concepts, approaches, tools & techniques, for which forty books and more than one hundred research papers have been reviewed. The third chapter deals with the objectives and hypotheses of the study, sample and survey design, contents of the survey and methodology. The practical difficulties & problems faced during field work and limitations of data have also been categorically pointed out under this chapter. The chapter also embodies a brief account of the physical and human geography of the Kanpur city. Among the core chapters, the social characteristics of houseless population, such as, age & sex composition, marital status, caste-category & religious composition, migration status, literacy level, etc. have been analysed in the fourth chapter.

As it is evident that the economic attributes of houseless population are provoking causes for the houselessness, the fifth chapter examines the economic characteristics of houseless population like working status, nature of works, causes of unemployment & duration of joblessness, professional activities, income, savings, expenditure, remittances, sources of food, etc. The sixth chapter presents causes of movement of houseless population from their places of origin and reasons of their influx in the city in terms of socio-economic pushing and pulling factors of migration respectively. The socio-economic causes of houselessness have also been examined in detail in this chapter. The chapter also throws light on the places of living and sleeping available for the houseless people, frequency of shifting their living places, status of houseless people in terms of ever/never been able to live in a house, frequency of getting chances to live in shelter after months & years and the duration of houselessness.

The seventh chapter deals with the socio-economic problems faced by the houseless population like causes of interruption, prevalence of bad habits, morbidities and physical &

mental disabilities, various socio-economic and infrastructure problems daily faced by the houseless people, inclement seasons, social affiliation & disaffiliation, need of security from unwanted things, negative attitude of general population, bad experiences at certain occasions, etc. so that their problems can be solved through preventions and interventions in the Kanpur city. The magnitude of infrastructure facilities & amenities like durable goods, clothing, sources of water for drinking and bathing, sources of defecation, activities during non-working days and recreational activities, help in emergency, governmental services, etc., accessed and availed by the houseless population in the city have been undertaken in the chapter eight.

The ninth chapter, being the last, contains a brief summary of the study and conclusions drawn thereof along with the measures recommended, and preventions & interventions suggested to mitigate the problems faced by the houseless population in the Kanpur city and to overcome the problem of houselessness.

This is followed by appendices containing some special and detailed tables and copy of the questionnaire used for survey in the city. The glossary of some technical terms used in this particular field of study is also given. A well classified bibliography of books, journals, governmental publications has been provided in alphabetical order for further references. In the end, the research work published and accepted for publication of the candidate done so far have been listed in chronological order to fulfill the University Grants Commission (Minimum Standards and Procedure for award of M.Phil./Ph.D. Degree), Regulations, 2009.

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Chapter 1

Houselessness: Theoretical Perspectives

As far as the problem of houselessness is concerned, it is as old as the first permanent human settlement on the surface of the Earth. Man has been gregarious wanderer on this planet since the immemorial time. Previously he used to live in the unadulterated lap of nature in the form of caves, bunkers, shrubs, forests, etc. which neat & clean and pleasure environment, but, unfortunately, at present, millions of people in the world, still, do not have house to live, and they spend their nights in open sky on pavements, play-grounds, parks, railway stations, bus-stands, religious places, etc. and some of them get accessibility in the tainted spaces like slums and squatters settlements wherein they have even no pure air to inhale, pure water to drink, and no need to mention about their basic needs of fooding, clothing and lodging. Truly speaking, millions of people in the contemporary world are born on the footpaths, they spend their whole lives on the pavements and ultimately are passed away from this world with a dream of house in their eyes. All this has been the consequent outcome of the exponential growth of population, heavy influx of rural migrants in urban areas, unplanned or unorganised growth of urbanisation, and lopsided developmental policies of the government, etc.

After centuries of denying, rejecting and assisting the needs of the houseless people, there is still a search for solutions to the problem of houselessness (Axelson & Dail, 1988: 463). The first United Nations (1948) document explicitly refers to the right to housing is the 'Universal Declaration of Human Rights', which, at the beginning of Article 25 (1), states that "everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself [sic] and his [sic] family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services".

The meaning of houselessness is too much flexible, and it has been continuously changing over time and space, that is why the researchers feel that 'place and time' matter a lot in defining any concept (Golant, 2003: 638). The concept of houselessness has widened out from the narrow definition of 'rooflessness' i.e. embracing only those rough sleepers, to one including risk & causality, and its definition is a political act rather than a semantic exercise (Edgar, Doherty, & Mina-Coull, 1999: 3). This approach recognises that houselessness is not only a housing problem, but a wider personal, social, cultural, economic and political issue. Definitions of houselessness are formed by what is culturally and politically accepted as

appropriate housing but it is not possible to study houselessness without seeing it as a part of a continuum from extreme rooflessness to unacceptable forms of housing (Watson & Austerberry, 1986: 97-102). Thus, the houselessness is partially structural and partially shaped by a range of variable determinants and there is a need to identify the complex interlocking factors which force a person to become houseless (Kellett & Moore, 2003: 125).

1.1. The concept of house and/or home

There should be serious concern about understanding what houselessness means and defining houseless, it is necessary to look first at what house means. As understanding what house is and its function helps to understand what it means to be, without house. However, defining house is not that simple. Thus, before giving an assortment of meaning and definitions of houselessness'and/or 'homelessness, there is a need to see what is meant by a house and/or home. The concept of home or house has been the focus of a considerable body of researches (Oswald & Wahl, 2005: 21-45; Despres, 1991: 96-155 and Sixsmith, 1986: 281-298). The search for the meaning of house has been longstanding and ongoing because the meaning of house/home is complex and multi-dimensional and several scholars have tried to answer the question what a home means to people, including anthropologists, sociologists, environmentalists, psychologists, geographers, and philosophers. It can be understood as dynamic and context-bound because peoples' circumstances as well as the ways in which they experience and conceptualise home keep on changing. Home in its material form is house; it often becomes a symbol of the self, a place where we can be more ourselves than at any other place (Cooper, 1974: 130-146).

A house is one of the three basic requirements of the mankind (Sinha, 1969: 91) which still remains unfulfilled, and it is not only an indicator of social welfare but also has great socio-cultural and economic importance in human life (Kulkarni, 1990: 32). The term 'house' denotes all human structures, whether they are meant to live in, or work in, or store things in (Bryan, 1933: 133). The house being shelter is a means of regulating the climate to meet the basic physiological requirements of the body (Negi, 1977: 321), because the basic requirements of the house stand for the satisfaction of fundamental physiological and psychological needs, protection against communicable diseases,safety & security from accidents, etc. (Mandal, 1989: 382-383).Though the importance of house varies from place to place and time to time as it provides shelter and safeguard from the rigours of climate.

According to Census of India the term 'house' covers the greatest diversity of dwellings. In 1872 Indian Census, a house was defined as 'any permanent structure which, on land, serves or would serve for the accommodation of human beings, or of animals, or goods of any description provided always that it could not be struck and removed bodily like a tent or a mud hut'. An attempt was also made to classify the houses as of the 'better sort' and of 'inferior sort'. In the Census of 1881, 'house' was defined as the dwelling place of one or more families with their servants, having a separate principal entrance from the public way. The same definition with slight modification continued till 1951 Census. In 1961 Census, 'house' was defined as a structure or part of a structure inhabited or vacant, or a dwelling, a shop, a shop-cum-dwelling or a place of business, workshop, school, etc. with a separate main entrance. In 1971 Census, 'house' was defined as 'a building or part of a building as a separate unit because of having a separate main entrance from the road or common courtyard or staircase, etc. It may be inhabited or vacant. It may be used for a residential or non-residential purpose or both'. If a building has a number of Flats or Blocks/Wings, which are independent of one another having separate entrances of their own from the road or a common staircase or a common courtyard leading to a main gate, these will be considered as separate Census houses. The same definition of Census house has been adopted in the subsequent Indian Censuses of 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011.

A general statement is that rented building is house for the occupant and home for the builder (owner); but such buildings, if built for rental purposes, are only the houses for the owner (builder) rather than homes. The word 'home' places greater significance on the attachment of the owner with it as builder as well as owner. It is a part of us while house is to live only, a home for worship, marriage, rituals, kitchen, etc. So home is a dwelling place of family or household where one feels at home, knowing and being familiar with everything there and hence home coming, home sickness, home made, home rule, home work, home like popular words are commonly used (Singh, 1994: 272-273).

Home is a common term of everyday that has multiple meanings and vary enormously. This term is truly a synergy, the plurality of physical and emotional meanings attached to it adds up to far more than the term itself could ever convey. Based on both the public's perceptions (cf. Ravenhill, 2008: 11) and the views of homeless or re-housed people, home is not only a physical place offering safety and security, but also a place defined by individuals

in terms of family¹. It is a social centre; a unique personal space that allows the individual to define him/herself; a place to relax enough to be 'yourself'; a means by which we order our lives and organise all our activities; something that defines us and our status in life. Buildings and furnishings are secondary requirements. If the individual has no emotional response to their premises and no meaningful social contacts with the surrounding area and unable to create them, he does not feel 'at home'; he feels 'sheltered' (Rivlin & Moore 2001: 323-336). It may be argued that on this basis, a huge percentage of the general population do not feel at home, and this may be true. However, not feeling 'at home' does not make people roofless; nor are those alienated from people in the area in which they live necessarily homeless. This definition, however, points to what people perceive as home what they expect from home, and what they want when they are looking for a home. People without a home, e.g. the roofless or precariously housed, are not necessarily seeking a physical place for home because they can be at home on the streets, on friends' floors, in squats, hostels or temporary accommodation.

In recent years, the notion of home as a theoretical concept has been questioned (Lawrence, 1995: 53-68), discussed and disputed (Rapoport, 1995: 25-52.). Nonetheless, the concept of home has an immense significance in life because it inimitably encompasses the social, psychological and cultural aspects of domestic living including key processes and decision-making, while, physical dwelling does not possess such attributes. It is, in fact, very difficult to define home as it has many attributes and levels of meaning, but its centre is a highly complex system of ordered relations with place, an order that orientates us in space, time, and in society (Dovey, 1985: 39). At one level, it is concerned with the domestic spaces and activities of everyday life, and simultaneously it has extended dimensions which relate to issues of identity as well as economic and social positions. That is why, the significance of the social and cultural perspective in relation to the meaning and use of home has been steadily documented (Dovey, 1985: 33-64.; Lawrence, 1995: 297-307 and Moore, 2000: 207-218). Basically, the term home is associated with safety, with familiar and protective boundaries, with the family, the exclusion of unwanted things, with privacy, a heaven in a heartless world (McDowell, 1997: 13).

Therefore, home is a very rich concept. This is the place where a person is able to set meaningful social relations with others, either entertaining them in his/her own space, or

¹. Family may include close friendships/relationships or a substitute family.

having the capacity for others to stay over there, where the person is able to withdraw from such relationships. In other words, it can be said that home could be a place where a person is able to define the space as his/her own, where s/he is able to control its form and shape. This may be through control of activity and defining his/her privacy in terms of access to space. When a person defines his/her space and gives it a sense of his/her identity, then that space becomes associated with that person, and the person has made a home (Cooper, 1995: 4). Thus, home embodies ideas of comfort, belonging, identity, security, etc. Somerville (1992: 532-534) tries to focus on the multidimensional nature of the meaning of the term 'home' and its converse 'homelessness', and presents seven key signifiers of home i.e. shelter, hearth, heart, privacy, roots, abode and paradise. To these signifiers are added the connotations they have for dwellers (warmth, love, etc.), the nature of the security they give (physiological, emotional, etc.), and how these affect them in relation to themselves (relaxation, happiness, etc.) and others (homeliness, stability, etc.).

To have a home implies a sense of relationship between the person and a place in which the person is able to have some sense of security and long-term occupancy. In this particular place or space, a person is able to develop a standard of accommodation that meets minimum standards, but these minimum standards use to shift over time depending upon what is acceptable to the wider society (Cooper, 1995: 3). Notwithstanding, the home is a multidimensional concept and it includes the location of the domicile, the time lived in that place, and the presence or absence of social connections therein (Terkenli, 1995: 324-334). Although, in theoretical literature and in practice homelessness is represented as a multifaceted equation including number of variables but it is generally assumed as merely the absence of a physical structure of domicile (Bachrach, 1996: 230-243). For example, the majority of older people want to stay in their homes not simply because they have owned them and frequently mortgage free, but also their homes are repositories of memories, and give locational access to physical, social, and biographical meanings of place (Fogel, 1992: 15-19 and Rowles, 1993: 65-70). It is felt that people often develop deep attachments to the houses they have owned for a long time, they should stay there as they age, rather than move, or be moved, to more specialised accommodations (Cookman, 1996: 227-231 and Rowles, 1993: 65-70). Their houses truly are their homes because, most often, these are the places with which older persons have associated close and intimate relationships, cherished memories, and a sense of historical continuity (Bowlby, Gregory & McKie, 1997: 343-351 and Cookman,

1996: 227-231). Consequently, their homes become their 'haven', a special place where they can be themselves without any interference from others (Kearns et al., 2000: 389); where they have freedom to do what they want to do, and when and how to do it (Krothe, 1997: 217-226). Not surprisingly, it is fact that older persons who are able to age at home perceive the quality of their lives to be better (Challis & Davies, 1985: 563-579).

As a symbol of our self, as it reflects our self-identity, is possibly the most integral feature of the way we define the concept of home for ourselves (Leith, 2006: 317-333). In whatever terms a home be defined, and whatever physical location and form it takes, it must be acceptable to the wider community. For example, what is acceptable to one person may not be acceptable for another, and hence someone may be seen as having a home by one observer, but he can be simultaneously considered homeless by another. Then how can homelessness be defined? Neil and Fopp (1992, p. 23) argued that homelessness in the broadest way can be defined most possibly as the absence of a home. They define a home as having the characteristics of security of tenure, adequate physical standards, social relations, personal security, affordability, privacy, control & autonomy, identity, access, compatibility and appropriateness. Thus, researches have gradually broadened the focus on its varied contexts including disadvantaged groups (Marsden, 1998: 84-106; Rivlin & Imbimbo, 1989: 705-728 and Klaufus, 2000: 341-365), and their inherent inequality and tensions (Despres, 1991: 96-155). Home is a feeling of safety, trust, continuity and stability that permits the physical, emotional and psychological well-being necessary for experiencing friendships and relationships. It is a central point in our lives from which other activities like work, friendships and relationships can be experienced and developed. It is also a unique space, place or area through which individuals define themselves and allow themselves to be their true self. A space or place, that allows them to feel anchored into their society and equal to or able to mix with their peers (Ravenhill, 2008: 12).

Thus, the term 'house' refers to the physical structure of dwelling with roof and wall, as a separate unit having a separate main entrance into it from the public way. It may be inhabited or vacant. It may be used for a residential or non-residential purpose or both (Census of India, 2001). The house types may vary due to the influence of geo-climatic conditions, socio-economic & cultural traditions and available local building material. On the other hand, the term 'home' may defined as the social, psychological and emotional landscape where a person develops the meaningful relationships with family, friends and

neighbours, and feels the sense of space in terms of comfort, belonging, identity, security, safety, shelter, hearth, heart, privacy, roots, abode, paradise, etc.

1.2. The various terminologies used for houselessness

Houselessness is an emotive word that conjures up in people's minds pictures of the tramp walking the street, smelly, dirty and hungry, or the alcoholic, obnoxious, loud, drunk, etc. To view all houseless people in term of this stereotype is to do an injustice. It can also act as an obstacle to tackling a serious problem. There is no consensus on the definition of houselessness in the literature. The definition used often relates directly to the objectives and ethos of the body or organisation defining it, thus, all definitions become relative and prone to variation. In spite of this, definitions have shaped & formed public policy; moulded & manipulated public opinion, identified causes and defined solutions (Ravenhill, 2008: 6). Therefore, classification and definitions of houselessness have been very controversial like the use of the word house itself. Although the notions of slums, squatters, pavement dwellers, skid rows, homeless, shelterless or dwellingless and/or houseless are often used interchangeably, they do have some social, cultural, political and economic characteristics and connotations that require differentiation. Despite the fact that they represent the depressed areas or sub-sections of the society that are not fully socially or economically integrated into the national development processes, they have distinct differences with each other (Olufemi, 1998: 226-227).

1.2.1. Marginally housed people

The term 'marginally housed' is used for those people who are at the risk of becoming houseless due to the unstable, inconsistent, or precarious nature of one's housing situation (e.g., individuals/ families living in single-room occupancy hotels, people who couchsurf and/or transiently live with friends and family, people whose residence is contingent on the exchange of sex or drugs, etc.) (Tsemberis, Glucur, & Nakae, 2004: 651-656).

1.2.2. Slum dwellers

Slums are shanty settlements of towns and cities undergoing deterioration and decay. They are not always a symbol of retrogression and, in fact, may be considered as the first step either from houselessness to shelter or from poverty to hope (Obudho & Mhlanga, 1988: 71-88). Slum is an evaluative term and it must be viewed in the light of socio-cultural, politico-economical, geographical and psychological factors that make up the residential environment

in question. On the other hand, a squatter settlement often shows evidence of evolution and is regarded as transitional or temporary in nature. Thus, slums are defined as legal permanent dwellings that have become substandard over time because of neglect and/or subdivision into smaller occupational units such as rooms or cubicles. Slums can develop either as a result of inadequate maintenance by a landlord, often prompted by rent control legislation, or by the internal subdivision of buildings by residents in order to accommodate new arrivals or newly created households (Pacione, 2009: 518). Dickinson (1948: 221-38) defines the concept of slum as “extreme condition of blight in which the housing is so unfit as to constitute a menace to the health and the moral of the community”. While, the Census of India 2001 defines slums as *“a compact area of at least 300 persons or about 60-70 households of poorly built congested tenements, in unhygienic environment usually with inadequate infrastructure and lacking in proper sanitary and drinking water facilities”*.² In other words, slum is not a building but an area having the least urban amenities, the maximum housing and population densities. The entire locality is deprived of any park or playground, the residents live in mostly unsatisfactory hygienic, social, and cultural environment where the urban amenities and sanitary conditions are worst enough to cause high death and infant mortality rates. In addition, a number of depleted buildings may be called as ahatas or slums where industrial workers, rickshaw-pullers, thela-pullers, colliers and other penniless persons are compelled to live because of their poor income. Such buildings exhibit a very poor and insanitary state of affairs (Singh & Singh, 1993: 325).

1.2.3. Squatter settlements

Squatter settlements differ considerably in appearance and internal layout, as chaotic, haphazard, and slum-like. They are a spreading malady harboring ‘excessive squalor, filth, and poverty’ in the city life (Juppenlatz, 1970: 5). Basically, squatters are unauthorised occupants of the private or public land (Aiken, 1981: 158). Squatting has strict legal connotations in most of the countries and refers to either the occupation of land without the permission of the owner or the erection and/or occupation of a building in contravention of existing legislation. This juridical interpretation helps to overcome the variety of forms of

². See Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner (2005) Slum Population: Census of India 2001, New Delhi. In addition, slums also comprise all those settlements that are notified as slums under the ‘Slum Acts’ and those recognized as slums by the State governments. This definition understates the slum population considerably.

squatter settlements and defines the nature of the power-relationship between squatters and urban authorities. The illegal status of squatter settlements provides the complete legal justification to the government for any remedial action against squatters. It also generates insecurity among squatters, which inhibits their participation in the city life, including access to urban civic amenities and facilities to which they are legally entitled, and it may also encourage concealed occupations that further complicate the squatters' relationship with the urban authority (Pacione, 2009: 517-518). Haggett (1983) defined squatters as a "spreading fungus and excessively squalid and deprived". There are various types of squatter communities, depending on the economic position of the squatters, some are found in the crowded central business district, on open lots, while, others are in the periphery of the city. Some communities are politically organised, some squatters work in salaried full-time jobs, while others eke out the barest subsistence through a number of marginal and quasi-jobs (Ross, 1973: 288).

1.2.4. Pavement dwellers

The inhabitants of pavement dwellings come to live on the city streets initially as a temporary measure until they can locate and afford better housing. Unfortunately, most of them are never able to acquire better housing and used to live out their lives on the footpaths (Pacione, 2009: 516). The pavement dwellers are the poorest income groups in urban India (Burra & Riley, 1999: 1). Pavement dwellers are those people who erect temporary huts along city streets, on footpaths or pavements and are radically different from what is generally understood by slums. They are not the '*Jhuggi-Jhoparies*' (in Delhi, India), '*Jhopadpattis*' (in Mumbai, India), '*Bastees*' (in Kolkata, India) and/or '*Cheri*'³ (Chennai, India) (Siddhartha & Mukherjee, 2008: 201) which spring up on vacant lots or stretches of land, but hutments actually built on the footpaths of city streets, utilising the walls or fences which separate building compounds from the pavements and streets outside" (SPARC, 1985: 4). In addition to using existing fences and walls as one side of their houses, pavement dwellers frequently construct the rest of their dwellings from materials such as cloth, corrugated iron, cardboard, wood, plastic, and also bricks or cement. Thus recycled waste products make up the majority of building materials for pavement shacks, affording their occupants little privacy, or

³. Jhuggi-jhoparies, Jhopadpattis, Bastees and Cheri refer to the shacks found in irregular settlements.

protection from the weather or the dangers of passing traffic (Burra & Riley, 1999: 1). The city authorities view the pavement dwellings as, "illegal encroachments on public land. This attitude manifested itself in periodic demolitions on one street or another, whenever the dwellings created sufficient nuisance to come to the notice of the authorities. Over the decades, pavement-dwellers came to cope with this official response by simply scattering for a few days and returning to the original location or moving to another area which was reputed to be relatively safe from demolitions. It seems that pavement dweller communities are left alone until they caused inconvenience to someone. Meanwhile, the unending debates on 'low-income housing' and 'slum development' rarely, if ever, addressed the question of pavement dwellers" (SPARC, 1985: 6).

1.2.5. Skid row people

There is great controversy among the scholars in defining the term 'skid row'. Some scholars used to focus on the residents of skid row rather than word skid row as a physical place. Wallace (1965) has defined skid row as the most deviant community, like they do not bathe, eat regularly, dress respectably, marry or raise children, attend school, vote, own property, or regularly live in the same place. They do little work of any kind. They do not even steal. The skid rowers do nothing and they simply just exist. For example, skid row is not so much a place as a human condition. To be a skid row person is to be poor, to live outside normal family relationships, to live in extremely low-cost housing, to have high probabilities of coming to police attention for behaviour related to alcohol use, to be more vulnerable to victimisation than other destitute people, to have a superficial style of social relations, and to have a prognosis for continued low status or even downward mobility (Blumberg, Shipley & Moor, 1971: 912). On the contrary, geographer Ward (1975, p. 286) is concerned with social and physical aspects of skid row which make it a unique geographic entity. For example, one of the notable features of skid row is the physical plant that houses essential skid row services. These include barber colleges, blood clinics, employment agencies, hotels, liquor stores, men's clothing stores, missions, pawn shops, restaurants, rooming houses, second hand clothing stores, taverns. Thus, the skid row homeless population was defined primarily by their residence in transient housing, usually confined to a particular area of central cities. In contrast, the houselessness has had no fixed spatial dimensions, and is defined by an outright lack of private accommodations (Culhane, Metraux & Bainbridge, 2010: 4).

In India, residents of informal settlements are officially recognised as slums and they are entitled to a plot in a regularised area. However, residents of '*Jhuggi-Jhoparies*' (in Delhi, India), '*Jhopadpattis*' (in Mumbai, India), '*Bastees*' (in Kolkata, India) and/or '*Cheri*' (Chennai, India) clusters are only entitled to a plot in a regularised area if their housing is cleared. If a household has a plot in a regularised area but only a poor and insubstantial shack on it, it is not regarded as houselessness because of the land holding. Planners are charged with providing housing land to deserving cases and classify person as eligible for their housing land allocation programmes only if they do not have a roof or land (Tippel & Speak, 2005: 345). In India, pavement-dwellers are usually not entitled to any plot in a regularised area because they are rarely on the voters' list and do not possess ration cards (Patel, 1990: 9-26). Hindu '*Sadhus*'⁴, who travel around India carrying few possessions, dressed only in loincloths and giving up all worldly attachments in order to obtain enlightenment, are not included in the category of houseless. '*Banjaras/Nats/Madaries*'⁵, '*Haburas*'⁶, etc. (Gypsies) and '*Lohars*'⁷ have also been excluded from land ownership and are not considered as houseless (Tippel & Speak, 2005: 346).

1.2.6. Homelessness

As has already been established, homelessness is far more than 'house-lessness', and there are various definitions of what homelessness could mean depending on who you are and why you want to define it. Within that umbrella phrase, homelessness has three sub-categories:

1.2.6. a. Roofless: Those people who literally have no roof over their heads at night and have to sleep on the streets, on benches, in parks or under bushes. These are the people that the vast majority of housed society defines as homeless, though not all roofless people would define themselves as homeless.

1.2.6. b. Houseless: As more research has been done into homelessness, some commentators have become pedantic about what is or is not homelessness and who is or is not eligible for assistance. The pedantic view is that those living in sheds, cars, caravans or tents are not roofless, but they are still broadly speaking homeless or, rather, houseless.

⁴ Wandering ascetics.

⁵ They are counted in the scheduled tribes who are migratory and mainly engaged in cobbling work and showing games to earn means of livelihood.

⁶ The scheduled tribes who are migratory and mainly engaged in black smith works to earn means of livelihood.

⁷ A nomadic tribe involved in the blacksmith trade.

1.2.6. c. Precariously housed: Those living in hostels, squats, bed and breakfast hotels, temporary accommodation, friends' floors, overcrowded accommodation, and those about to be evicted (Ravenhill, 2008: 6).

1.2.7. Asylum seekers

An asylum seeker is a person exercising their right to seek asylum, and awaiting a decision by the host region/area on their entitlement to protection. Asylum seekers have a no recourse to public funds condition attached to their in-migration status. At no point in the process before a positive asylum decision are asylum seekers able to work. However, some asylum seekers are entitled to apply for support through the UKBA. This support can cover accommodation, education fees and other principal benefits. Accommodation, however, is in most cases only available in dispersal locations, so some asylum seekers do end up as sofa surfers and sometimes destitute if they have refused to take up this accommodation. At the end of the asylum process, claims are either accepted, at which point the person becomes a refugee or rejected.

1.2.7. a. Refugees: A refugee is an individual who has had a positive decision on their claim for asylum. Many refugees flee their place of origin due to fear of persecution because of their civil, political or social status. To receive refugee status, an individual must prove that their own government does not want to (or is failing to) protect them from harm. Once refugee status has been granted, refugees should receive entitlement to benefits and housing. However, delays in administering their claims and accessing welfare support may result in houselessness.

1.2.7. b. Irregular migrants: Irregular migrants include people whose claims for asylum have been refused, those who have overstayed a visa or permission to remain and other illegal entrants. It can also include people who have arrived on the basis of marriage but who can no longer stay with their partner (e.g. due to domestic violence). This group of people often lack the appropriate documentation making it difficult or impossible to work legally. They also have limited or no access to welfare support and housing, so are at greater risk of becoming destitute.

1.3. The concept of houseless and/or homeless

Houselessness is not an easily defined concept. It has been interpreted in many different ways from country to country and time to time. The word 'houseless', therefore, may carry a

variety of meanings (Iwata, 2010: 127). Some scholars conceptualise houselessness strictly in terms of housing (Susser, Conover & Struening, 1990: 391-414 and Stewart, 1987: 100-177), while, others highlight sociological and psychological dimensions of houselessness. They argued that the characteristic of the homeless person is 'extreme disaffiliation and disconnection from supportive relationships and traditional systems that are designed to help'. Subsequently, houselessness is the condition that represents the upshot of these, expressed in connotations of coldness, indifference, etc., and presenting stress, misery, alienation, instability, etc. (Somerville, 1992: 532-534). Houselessness is found in a variety of settings such as the street, hostels and squats, and includes families, single people, elderly and young people, etc. (Moore et al., 1995: 238-259.).

The concept of houselessness can be divided into three forms: sheltered, unsheltered, and doubled-up homeless. The sheltered homeless sleep overnight in emergency shelters or in transitional housing programmes, the unsheltered homeless sleep overnight in parks, subways, bus stands, railway stations, abandoned buildings, on the streets, and other places not meant for habitation, and the doubled-up homeless sleep overnight with family, friends and acquaintances, because they have no place anywhere else to go (United States Interagency Council on Homelessness, 2010: 10). On the other hand, FEANTSA (2009, pp. 14-52) proposed its 'European Typology of Homelessness and Housing Exclusion (ETHOS)', based on the concept of 'home'. ETHOS uses four major categories: 'rooflessness', 'houselessness', 'insecure housing' and 'inadequate housing'. According to Doherty (2005, pp. 41-61), these four categories are suggested on the basis of conceptual definition of home, which encompasses three areas viz. the physical area, the social area and the legal area. If these three dimensions are satisfied, then a dwelling/place or space can be considered a home. However, the absence of satisfaction in any of these three areas, to a greater or lesser degree, gives rise to one of the categories as mentioned above. Thus, the terms houseless, homeless, roofless, shelterless pavement dwellers, etc. do not always cover the same population. For instance, Dupont (1998, pp. 99-124) deliberately avoid to use the term 'homeless' in her work in India because it adds notion of the loss of familial roots to a lack of shelter. Other reviewers have defined houselessness as featuring the lack of right of access to secure and minimally adequate housing, variously described as rooflessness (living rough), houselessness (relying on emergency accommodation or long-term institutions), or inadequate housing (including

insecure accommodation, intolerable housing conditions or involuntary sharing) (Edgar, Doherty, & Mina-Coull, 1999: 2).

The homelessness as an absence of home has paved the way to examine the meaning and experience of home (Dovey, 1985: 33-64; Rivlin, 1990: 39-56; Somerville, 1992: 529-539; Tomas & Dittmar, 1995: 493-514 and Watson & Austerberry, 1986: 97-102). In addition to it, homelessness does not only vary by the level of permanence or security in a particular setting, but also by the qualities of home and hearth it provides (Moore et al., 1995: 238-259 and Rivlin & Moore, 2001: 4). In this way, a person living in a hostel or shelter can be classified as officially homeless, but he may feel 'at home' due to a long period of stay and a high level of dependency. The literature on low-income housing is focused towards issues of standards, housing supply and processes of settlement upgrading due to the critical shortage of adequate housing in the rapidly expanding urban centers of the developing world. It is recognised that poverty or the struggle for survival means that the self-build residences of low-income groups, especially those which they have built for themselves, respond essentially to the basic need for shelter. That is why, the debate on housing and houselessness within a developing world context has not tended to explore the more complex meanings and use of home, other than as a form of physical shelter (Kellett & Moore, 2003: 125).

Thus, it may be inferred that houseless people are those who do not live in a house, having few possessions with them and used to sleep and live in the informal places not meant for human habitation, and the house, being a physical structure of dwelling with roof and walls as a separate unit has the separate main entrance into it from the public way. The people living in the Jhuggi-Jhoparies, Jhopadpattis, Bastees, Cheri, etc. are not considered as houseless population because they have the roof over their head and also have the legal right of ownership of the land. In addition to it, the gipsy tribal communities like 'Banjaras', 'Nats', 'Haburas', 'Bhubadiyas', 'Madaries', 'Lohars' (a nomadic tribe involved in 'the blacksmith trade) and Hindu 'Sadhus' (wandering ascetics), who travel around India carrying few possessions, dressed only in loin cloths and giving up all worldly attachments in order to obtain enlightenment, have been excluded from land ownership and are not considered as houseless. While homelessness may be defined as the absence of house and the experience of being disaffiliated and disconnected from social, psychological, emotional, cultural and other supportive meaningful relationships with family, friends and neighbours in the society.

1.4. Some selected definitions of houselessness

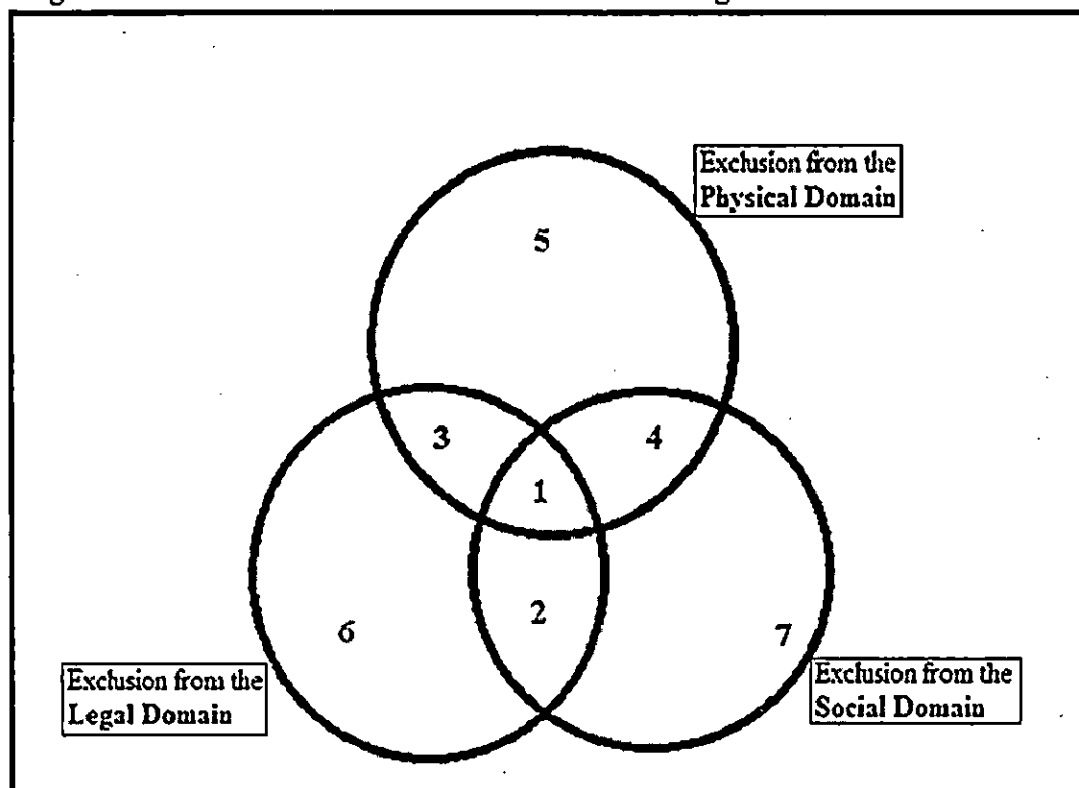
The definitions and classifications of houselessness have not been used homogeneously, and consequently reflect different realities of people without shelter in different regions of the world (Springer, 2000: 477). There are certainly differences among countries with different levels of social provision. The number of houseless obviously depends on how one defines houselessness. Should mere physical shelter be the only criterion? Is shelter quality a relevant consideration? Is someone homeless if separated from one's immediate family? Obviously, as one departs from notions of physical rooflessness toward concepts of socio-cultural disaffiliation from mainstream lifestyles, the number of the houseless population increases (Loveland, 1991: 258). Definition of houselessness is very important because most of the researchers agree on the fact that 'whom we define as houseless determines how we count them' (Peressini, McDonald & Hulchanski, 1996: 2-10). A definition of houselessness may refer to a special housing situation, to a special minimum standard, to the duration and the frequency of an stay without shelter, to lifestyle questions, to the use of the welfare system, to being part of a certain group of the population, to the risk of becoming houseless, and to the possibility to move or not if desired (Springer, 2000: 479).

The Oxford Dictionary (2010, p. 745) defines the homeless as '(of a person) who have no home or permanent shelter, therefore typically living on the streets'. According to the Encyclopaedia of Homelessness (2004, pp. 540-543), homeless as an adjective includes a wide range of people, from those lacking shelter (protection from rain, heat, danger, etc.) to people temporarily housed in specially provided lodging facilities, to people housed in extremely substandard dwellings. In some definitions, certain aspects of homelessness are emphasised like lack of a fixed address (which indicates isolation from family, community, and mainstream society), youth and criminal involvement (indicating a similar estrangement from society and its values), and addiction & mental illness. What these factors have in common is the 'loss of conventional dwelling'.

Caplow, Bahr & Sternberg (1968, p. 494) defined homelessness as "a condition of detachment from society characterised by the absence or attenuation of the affiliative bonds that link settled persons to a network of interconnected social structures". Therefore, houselessness carries implications of belonging nowhere rather than having nowhere to sleep" (UNCHS/Habitat, 2000: xiii). Cooper (1995, pp. 3-4) discusses the ideas of relative and

absolute homelessness. Absolute homelessness occurs when there is neither access to shelter nor the elements of home. People may be in relative homelessness when they might have a 'shelter' but not a 'home'. But, Watson & Austenberry (1986, pp. 97-102) challenged the policy and analytic orientation that tended to focus on absolute homelessness defined as sleeping rough in public places or living in a shelter (Callaghan, Farha & Porter, 2002: 55). Their work supports a more expansive definition of relative homelessness, similar to that suggested by United Nations researchers with regard to people who are homeless as "those who have no home and who live either outdoors or in emergency shelters or hostels, and people whose homes do not meet The United Nations has identified five basic standards of suitable dwelling "dwelling must adequately protect occupants from the elements, be provided with safe water and sanitation, provide for secure tenure and personal safety, lie within easy reach of employment, education, and health care, and be affordable" (cf. Mattu, 2002: 16).

Figure 1.1: The Domains of Homelessness and Housing Exclusion



Source: Adopted from Edgar, 2009, p.16.

Avramov (1996, p. 71) prefers a wider definition which includes the value-laden term 'adequate' as homelessness is the absence of a personal, permanent, adequate dwelling. Homeless people are those who are unable to access a personal, permanent, adequate dwelling

or to maintain such a dwelling due to financial constraints and other social barriers (FEANTSA, 1999: 10).

To define homelessness in an operational way, three domains are identified which constitute a home, the absence of which can be taken to delineate homelessness. Having a home can be understood as having a decent dwelling (space), adequate to meet the needs of the person and his/her family (physical domain); being able to maintain privacy and enjoy social relations (social domain) and having exclusive possession, security of occupation and legal title (legal domain). In fact, homelessness is amongst the worst examples of social exclusion. Therefore, it is a valuable exercise to consider the varying extent and depth of different forms of homelessness according to their relation with the three above mentioned domains (see Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1 depicts seven theoretical types of homelessness and housing exclusion, varying between rough sleeping on the one side and living within a decent and legally occupied dwelling without safety (e.g. women who experience domestic abuse) on the other side (vide Table 1.1). These are explained in the Third Review of Statistics on Homelessness and form the basis of the ETHOS typology of homelessness. Adopting this conceptual understanding of homelessness, FEANTSA adopted a conceptual definition of homelessness and housing exclusion, outlined in Table 1.1, and developed this into an operational definition including 13 categories which is presented in Table 1.5. This conception of homelessness is still being discussed within the European Observatory on Homelessness (EOH) and the FEANTSA Data Collection Working Group.

The Stewart B. McKinney Homeless Assistance Act of 1987 gives a Federal definition of homelessness as 'An individual who lacks a fixed, regular, and adequate nighttime residence; and an individual who has a primary nighttime residence that is a supervised publicly or privately operated shelter designed to provide temporary living accommodations (including welfare hotels, congregate shelters, and transitional housing for the mentally ill); an institution that provides a temporary residence for individuals intended to be institutionalised; or a public or private place not designed for, or ordinarily used as, a regular sleeping accommodation for human beings' (cf. USA, 1994: 22-23).

The U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (1984) defined American homeless, who lies near the 'rooflessness' end of the spectrum, as a person whose night-time accommodation is (a) in public or private emergency shelters which take a variety of forms:

armories, schools, church basements, government buildings, former firehouses, and where temporary vouchers are provided by private or public agencies, even hotels, apartments, or boarding homes; or (b) in the streets, parks, subways, bus terminals, railroad stations, airports, under bridges or aqueducts, abandoned buildings without utilities, cars, trucks, or any other public or private places that are not designed for shelter (Helvie, 1999: 7-8).

Table 1.1 Seven Theoretical Domains of Homelessness

Conceptual category	Operational category	Physical domain	Legal domain	Social domain
Homelessness	1 Rooflessness	No dwelling (roof)	No legal title to a space for exclusive possession	No private and safe personal space for social relations
	2 Houselessness	Has a place to live, fit for habitation	No legal title to a space for exclusive possession	No private and safe personal space for social relations
Housing exclusion	3 Insecure and inadequate housing	Has a place to live (not secure and unfit for habitation)	No security of tenure	Has space for social relations
	4 Inadequate housing and social isolation within a legally occupied dwelling	Inadequate dwelling (unfit for habitation)	Has legal title and /or security of tenure	No private and safe personal space for social relations
	5 Inadequate housing (secure tenure)	Inadequate dwelling (dwelling unfit for habitation)	Has legal title and/or security of tenure	Has space for social relations
	6 Insecure housing (adequate housing)	Has a place to live	No security of tenure	Has space for social relations
	7 Social isolation within a secure and adequate context	Has a place to live	Has legal tile and /or security of tenure	No private and safe personal space for social relations

Source: Meert, Edgar and Doherty, 2004, p. 9.

In India the National Campaign for Housing Rights (NCHR) uses a broad and holistic definition of home as a place where one is able to live with dignity in social, legal and environmental security and with adequate access to essential housing resources like land, building materials, water, fuel, fodder as well as civic services and finance. Aashray Adhikar Abhiyan (2001, p. xiii) in India defines a homeless person as 'one' who has no place to call a home in the city. By home is meant a place which not only provides a shelter but takes care of one's health, as well as social, cultural and economic needs.

2: Criteria Used for Defining Houselessness in Some Selected Countries of the World

Lifestyle (Vagrancy, Transience)	Location	Permanence of occupation or security of tenure	Housing quality	Welfare entitlement
Mobile and vagrant, rootless people	In rail station, launch terminal, bus station, market, shrine, staircase of public/govt' buildings, open space, etc.			
			In marginal and unsuitable housing, including shacks, kiosks, staircases, rooftops, public institutions, open boats and cemeteries	Those in marginal and unsuitable housing, and in public institutions are eligible for govt. provided housing
			Lacking of roof	
			Not living in 'census houses' i.e. a structure with a roof	In settlements officially recognised as 'slums'
		Without a permanent place to stay		
Living on the streets: alcoholics, addicts, vagrants, criminals and mentally ill		Without legal title to land		Households registered on the 'family plots programme'
	In squatter settlements, in rented backrooms in townships and elsewhere			
	In informal residential areas			Any household not owing a public dwelling is entitled to register on Housing Waiting List

Apple & Speak, 2005, pp. 348-349.

The Census of India (1991, p.64) defines houseless population as *"the persons who are not living in 'census house', a 'census house' being referred to a 'structure with roof'. The enumerators are instructed to mark out the possible places where the houseless population is likely to live such as on the roadside, pavements, in hump pipes, under staircases or in the open, temples, mandaps, platforms etc."*.

For statistical purposes, the United Nations (1998, p. 50) used the expression *homeless household* to refer to ".....households without a shelter that would fall within the scope of living quarters. They carry their few possessions with them sleeping in the streets, in door ways or on piers, or in any other space, on a more or less random basis". To facilitate international comparison and help in the formulation of targeted policy responses, Springer (2000) argues for a global definition based on different terminology without the term 'homelessness'. The core of 'houseless' would be those who are literally without access to shelter (street sleepers & others sleeping rough) combined with those finding institutional places to sleep (shelters, etc.). The second group would consist of three sub-categories of those living in 'inadequate shelter' 'concealed houselessness' (taking shelter with relatives or friends); 'at risk of houselessness' (threat of eviction, release from an institution) and those living in 'substandard housing'. Individuals would move between groupings as their circumstances change. This separation of the 'houselessness' from those in 'inadequate shelter' acknowledges regional and cultural variations, but loses something of the complexity and richness implicit in making reference to the concept of home.

Until now, no accurate dimensions of houselessness exist. A narrow definition of houselessness excludes people who should not be without regular shelter, and a broad definition includes people who are not actually without regular shelter, because lack of housing is relative to time and place. Houseless people use various places for shelter along a continuum, from houses of friends to steam grates. People can be houseless for a few days or a lifetime. The majority of people are episodically houseless. Episodic houselessness is defined as periods of housing interspersed with periods of houselessness (Wright, 1988: 64-69). A distinction is also made between literal and marginal houselessness. The literal houseless are those people who have no access to regular shelter. The marginal houseless are those who have the potential to be literally houseless because of precarious economic and employment conditions (Rossi & Wright, 1987: 19-32).

Chamberlain & Mackenzie (1992, p. 277) have discussed the politics of defining the houselessness and outlined three successive definitions over time. The 1960s are regarded as the decade of the 'hobo and the bum', dominated by references to, and images of skid-rows, which were inhabited by middle aged, single, alcohol-dependent men, living in cheap hostels, run-down boarding houses and emergency accommodation. Thus, in the 1960s, the houseless people were defined as those who lived on the streets, skid row shelters and cheap single rooms. This definition emphasised the behaviour of this population, especially their lack of primary relationship, as abuse of alcohol. The main response to improve the situation was charitable one, consisting of efforts aimed at trying to alleviate the worst aspects of houselessness through basic shelter from the elements and basic nutrition. The definition adopted during the 1970s emphasised the subjective view, or self-identification of houselessness. It is argued that if people felt their living arrangements to be unsatisfactory because of poor conditions, overcrowding and lack of security, then they could consider themselves as houseless. This definition allowed the link between housing stress and houselessness to be considered. By the 1980s, it was contented that policy formation could only rest on a quantifiable definition. Houselessness was defined as people who were without conventional shelter and in emergency or short-term accommodation. This pragmatic definition aimed to generate more scientific statistics regarding houseless people and combined this with the specific understanding of the people who were houseless. These above definitions have been considered 'accommodation-oriented', in that, the main criterion of houselessness rested on the individual's lack of conventional shelter and restricted the issue of houselessness (Cooper, 1995: 4-5). However, these definitions do not do justice to the complexity of houselessness in today's society, neither they are sufficient to describe the different realities of houselessness in every country.

Every society has different perceptions of individuals or households called houseless. The regional differences between the definitions of what is houselessness and who is considered as houseless are, therefore, very important. These definitions would be influenced by different factors such as climatic patterns, traditions, culture, social infrastructure & welfare systems, financial & gender issues, etc (Springer, 2000: 476). Thus, it seems that the definition of houselessness is very difficult because of the many shades of gray that surround the houseless condition. Nonetheless, the most common definition of houselessness

is the lack of regular and customary access to a conventional dwelling unit (Wright, 1989: 46).

Hence, the houseless population is defined as persons who do not live in a house, having few possessions with them and used to sleep and live in the informal places, not meant for human habitation, excluding the slums dwellers, nomadic tribal people (gipsies) and Hindu sadhus and the house, being a physical structure of dwelling with roof and walls as a separate unit has the separate main entrance into it from the public way. The informal places are like the streets, pavements, road dividers, under ledges of shops or houses, under bridges, over bridges, flyovers, subways, drainage pipes, under staircases, courtyard of worship places, abandoned buildings, working places, ATMs or banks, cinema halls, parks, shrines, graveyards, hospitals, Govt. night shelters, NGO's night shelters, emergency night shelters, market corridors, premises of railway stations & bus stands, etc.

1.5. The concept of houseless household

This section considers the basic terminology which is necessary to allow a common understanding of the issues involved to conceptually define and operationally measure houselessness and housing exclusion.

1.5.1. Houseless household

The definition of a household is an essential concept to establish in order to measure houselessness. Individuals can, of course, live on their own or as part of a family group or of a group of unrelated people who share accommodation, or they may live with other people in institutional structures. According to Census of India (2011), A 'household' is usually a group of persons who normally live together and take their meals from a common kitchen unless the exigencies of work prevent any of them from doing so. The persons in a household may be related or unrelated or a mix of both. However, if a group of unrelated persons live in a Census house but do not take their meals from the common kitchen, then they will not collectively constitute a household. Each such person should be treated as a separate household. An important link to find out, whether, it is a household or not, is a common kitchen. There may be one member households, two member households or multi-member households. Thus, there are three types of households namely, (a) Normal households, (b) Institutional households and (c) Houseless households.

1.5.1. a. Normal households: A Normal household is usually a group of persons who normally live together and take their meals from a common kitchen unless the exigencies of work prevent any of them from doing so. The persons in a normal household may be related or unrelated or a mix of both whereas in an institutional household the persons are unrelated. Another difference between the normal and institutional household is in case of institutional households, the persons live in an institution unlike in a normal household.

1.5.1. b. Institutional households: A group of unrelated persons who live in an institution and take their meals from a common kitchen is called an 'Institutional Household'. Examples of Institutional Households are boarding houses, messes, hostels, hotels, rescue homes, observation homes, beggars' homes, jails, ashrams, old age homes, children homes, orphanages, etc.

1.5.1. c. Houseless households: Households which do not live in buildings or Census houses but live in the open or roadside, pavements, in hume pipes, under fly-overs and staircases, or in the open in places of worship, mandaps, railway platforms, etc., are to be treated as houseless households. Houseless households are not to be covered in House listing phase.

1.6. Typologies of houseless population

Various typologies of houselessness have been developed during the last few decades depending upon a number of criteria varying from classification of 'quality' to the classifications based on risk and/or potential, time, continuum and responsibilities:

1.6.1. Typologies of houselessness based on quality

FEANTSA (1999, p. 10) proposes a quality-oriented definition of houselessness beginning with a four-fold sub-division of housing adequacy. According to Table 1.3, an adequate home (square 1) is one which is secure and where available space and amenities (quality) provide a good environment for the satisfaction of physical, social, psychological and cultural needs.⁸ Broad definitions of houselessness would include all squares except this one. Low quality (squares 3 and 4) would be manifested by overcrowding, high levels of noise, and pollution or infestation. These are at odds with the need for and right to personal privacy, health, and

⁸. For instance, the GSS referred to aspects of home as a site for adequate privacy, space, security, lighting and ventilation, basic infrastructure and location with regard to work and basic facilities: 'all at a reasonable cost'.

comfort. Low security, for instance, temporary lodgings, lack of community belonging or family exclusion and/or poor tenure rights and risk of evictions, are the signs of households at risk of houselessness in a narrow sense (squares 2 and 4). However, there is a dilemma to this categorisation as one must be careful not to include almost any form of housing deficiency in houselessness or there is a danger that 'the unique distress and urgent needs of those people who are identified by a narrow definition (square 4) are lost and neglected'.

Table 1.3: The Housing Adequacy

	High security	Low security
High quality	1	2
Low quality	3	4

Source: FEANTSA, 1999, p. 10.

FEANTSA (1999) suggests a typology based on a combination of high or low quality and security (see Table 1.4). However, any categorisation using the concept of low quality or security would include the vast majority of the developing world's population and would offer little differentiation between their individual circumstances and stress. It would not help to differentiate the potentially greater needs of street sleepers, without any form of shelter, from those of the millions of squatters around the world. Even within the category of street sleepers with no shelter, it would not help to prioritise those without any form of alternative from those who have access to accommodation elsewhere. FEANTSA's Observatory has developed a four-fold classification of housing situation which can be used both to define the condition of houselessness and evaluate its extent. Homelessness is one of the four conceptual categories established by ETHOS 2006 (see Table 1.5). These are: rooflessness (i.e. sleeping rough), houselessness (i.e. living in institutions or short-term 'guest' accommodation), insecure accommodation, and inferior or substandard housing (Daly, 1994: 27).

Cooper (1995, p. 6) offers four categories of homelessness in terms of degree of homelessness based on accommodation or shelter. In which, quality is not based only on tenure and physical conditions, but also includes the more socially-constructed concept of home:

- (a) **Absolute homelessness** is the worst degree of homelessness that includes those people without an acceptable roof over their heads, living on the streets, under bridges and in deserted buildings. Once more, this would include many hundreds of thousands, if not

Table 1.4: FEANTSA's Model Applied to Circumstances in Developing Countries

Security			
High quality		Low quality	
1	2	3	4
Owner-occupied housing in permanent materials, in low, medium and high income areas, with at least some mains services.	Owner-occupied or rented housing, and housing on lease, ⁹ built of permanent materials but on land that is not owned by the owner of the structure (squatters), or is on a short lease, or is threatened by flood (Bangladesh), landslide, and other natural disasters. Lodgers in good quality housing (Indonesia, Zimbabwe, South Africa). Occupants of graveyards (Egypt).	Housing in established areas where services are poorly provided or absent. Congested private slums, refugee colonies and old-city tenement houses (Bangladesh, India), kampong areas, especially kampung kumuh (Indonesia), old suburbs) ¹⁰ and transit camps (Zimbabwe, South Africa), temporarily converted shops and emergency housing (Egypt).	Housing in unserviceable and illegal squatter settlements with threat of eviction, violence and extortion (Indonesia), backyard permukiman (Egypt, Zimbabwe, South Africa). Sleeping rough on pavement dwelling. Living under staircases, in board and Zabbali settlements (Egypt).

⁹. In present day Indonesia (unlike in the colonial period and the early days of independence) rental units are virtually non-existent. PERUMNAS has only recently introduced rental housing units. Much more common is the lease system, which started to become popular in the 1960s, when Indonesia was plagued by three-digit hyperinflation. By 1998 more than 30% of all urban housing tenure are of this type, while in rural areas the percentage is about 18% (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2000). A lease contract is usually for three or (at least) two years, after which a new contract would have to be made (that usually means that the lease price, which will have to be paid in advance, will increase). If a new agreement is not reached, the lessee will have to leave the house and find a new place to stay. The lessee vis-à-vis the lessor, therefore, is in a weak position.

¹⁰. In Zimbabwe, these include decayed and decaying residential areas established in the colonial era for limited populations (mostly single men), which experienced great increases in population after independence. Among these are Mbare (Harare), Sakubva (Mutare), Mutapa (Gweru), Makokoba, Mabutweni (Bulawayo), Mahombekombe (Kariba). A fuller analysis is found in Kamete (2001).

Table 1.5: ETHOS' (2006) classification of houselessness.

		Operational category		Living situation		Generic definition
Conceptual Category	Roofless	1	People living rough	1.1	Public space or external space	Living in the streets or public spaces, without a shelter that can be define as living quarters
		2	People in emergency accommodation	2.1	Night shelter	People with no usual place of residence who make use of overnight shelter, low threshold shelter
	Houseless	3	People in accommodation for the homeless	3.1 3.2 3.3	Homeless hosted Temporary accommodation Transitional supported accommodation	Where the period of stay is intended to be short term
		4	People in women's shelter	4.1	Women's shelter accommodation	Women accommodated due to experience of domestic violence and where the period of stay is intended to be short term
		5	People in accommodation for immigrants	5.1 5.2	Temporary accommodation /reception centres Migrant workers accommodation	Immigrants in reception or short term accommodation due to their immigrant status
		6	People due to be released from institutions	6.1 6.2 6.3	Penal institutions Medical institutions Children's institutions /homes	No housing available prior to release Stay longer than needed due to lack of housing No housing identified
		7	People receiving longer-term support (due to homelessness)	7.1 7.2	Residential care for older homeless people Supported accommodation for formerly homeless people	Long stay accommodation with care for formerly homeless people (normally more than one year)
	Insecure	8	People living in insecure accommodation	8.1 8.2 8.3	Temporary with family/friends No legal (sub) tenancy Illegal occupation of land	Living in conventional housing but not the usual or place of residence due to lack of housing Occupation of dwelling with no legal tenancy illegal occupation of a dwelling Occupation of land with no legal rights
		9	People living under threat of eviction	9.1 9.2	Legal orders enforced (rented) Re-possession orders (owned)	Where orders for eviction are operative Where mortgagor has legal order to re-possess
		10	People living under threat of violence	10.1	Police recorded incidents	Where police action is taken to ensure place of safety for victims of domestic violence
	Inadequate	11	People living in temporary/non-conventional structure	11.1 11.2 11.3	Mobile homes Non-conventional building Temporary structure	Not intended as place of usual residence Makeshift shelter, shack or shanty Semi-permanent structure hut or cabin
		12	People living in unfit housing	12.1	Occupied dwellings unfit for habitation	Define as unfit for habitation by national legislation or building regulations
		13	People living in extreme overcrowding	13.1	Highest national norm of overcrowding	Defined as exceeding national density standard for floor-space or useable rooms

Source: Edgar, 2009, p.73.

millions of people in developing countries. Whilst a focus on absolute homelessness would prioritise the worst cases, it lacks an understanding of the cultural context within which people experience their homeless state.

- (b) **First degree relative homelessness:** in which people are moving between various forms of temporary or medium-term shelters such as refuges, boarding houses, hostels or with friends.
- (c) **Second degree relative homelessness:** wherein people are constrained to live permanently in single rooms in private boarding houses.
- (d) **Third degree relative homelessness/inadequate housing/incipient homelessness:** where there are houses but without conditions of home for example security, safety, or adequate standards.

After all, this contemporary definition splits houselessness into two broad groups: 'absolute homelessness' which refers to persons or households literally without physical shelter (i.e., sleeping rough or living in homeless shelters), and 'relative homelessness' which includes a range of housing situations characterised as being at-risk of homelessness (Fiedler, Schuurman & Hyndman, 2006: 207).

Springer (2000, pp. 480-481) proposed four-fold classification of houseless population as:

- (a) **Concealed houselessness:** Under this category all people fall who are living with family members or friends because they cannot afford any shelter for themselves. Without this privately offered housing opportunity they would be living in the street or be sheltered by an institution of the welfare system. This phenomenon is extremely difficult to enumerate above all in countries where the system of the extended family takes care of its members if necessary. Furthermore, more and new strategies of sharing housing units are developed as the pressure on the housing market increases and making the exercise of enumerating these situations even more challenging.
- (b) **Risk of houselessness:** Another group living under the threat of houselessness are those who are facing the risk of losing their shelter either by eviction or the expiry of the lease, with no other possibility of shelter in view. Prisoners or people living in other institutions, facing their release and having no place to go to, are considered as part of this population.
- (c) **Substandard housing houselessness:** Before becoming houseless many people have been living in substandard housing situations. Their way out of houselessness is also likely to

pass by this sort of housing unit. Households with a feeble and perhaps insecure income are likely to live in substandard housing units and might also experience houselessness because of economic difficulties. Their situation is somehow comparable with those without shelter, because they are deprived of the basic human right to have a housing situation without health hazards, allowing the full development of the individual's capacities. Therefore, the population living in substandard houses should also be included in the study of houselessness as the population which not only feeds the group of houseless mostly, but is also likely to receive them when they attempt to escape the situation.

- (d) **Inadequate shelter houselessness:** Though the last three categories defined above are overlapping, but none wholly includes the other. Therefore somebody can live in the house of a family member in concealed houselessness, which must not be substandard. But a person might also live in the house of a relative, which is of substandard quality and who is himself in danger of being evicted. These are not exclusive classes of housing situations and they will, in future, be summarised under the notion of inadequate shelter, which is used policy oriented in The Global Strategy for Shelter to the Year 2000 (UNCHS/Habitat, 2000: 18) and in the Habitat Agenda 9 (UNCHS/Habitat, 1997: 481). This classification of different housing situations, contrary to the above definitions of houselessness, is exposed to regional interpretations. The influence of characteristics linked to the geographic position of the country like climatic conditions, as well as socio-economic characteristics, traditions and other culture-based differences are introducing regional variations in the definition of inadequate shelter. For example, a house without a heating possibility can be of very high standard in a country with mild climatic conditions, while in Northern Europe a housing unit which does not offer this facility is not considered as offering adequate shelter from the cold weather. For technical reasons, this definition has to be restricted to measurable elements. Therefore, proposed statistical definition of inadequate shelter as a housing unit without a roof and/or walls that does not allow privacy; without adequate space, adequate security (legal and physical), adequate lighting, heating and ventilation and adequate basic infrastructure, such as water-supply, sanitation and waste-management facilities; without suitable environmental quality and health-related factors, and with housing costs that are not reasonable. The concrete definition of each element depends upon regional specifications because of the different cultural, socio-economic and environmental factors

involved. This definition includes the two sub-classes of concealed houselessness and the risk of becoming houseless (Springer, 2000: 481).

According to United States Interagency Council on Homelessness (2010, p. 10) the concept of homelessness can also be divided into three forms: sheltered, unsheltered, and doubled-up homeless:

- (a) **The sheltered homeless:** sleep overnight in emergency shelters or in transitional housing programmes.
- (b) **The unsheltered homeless:** sleep overnight in parks, subway/bus stations, abandoned buildings, on the streets, or other places not meant for habitation.
- (c) **The doubled-up homeless:** sleep overnight with family, friends, or acquaintances because they have nowhere else to go.

More or less similar, three distinct groups of homeless street people were identified in the Johannesburg inner-city by Olufemi (1998, p. 229).

- (a) **Group A:** pavement or street dwellers, for example, those who live on bare floors, street kerbs, sidewalks, in cardboard boxes, etc.
- (b) **Group B:** those who live in temporary shelters such as bus or railway stations, open halls, taxi ranks, etc.
- (c) **Group C:** those who live in city shelters viz., shelters provided by NGOs or faith-based organisations.

Households were classified as either housed or homeless using the cultural definition of homelessness (Chamberlain and MacKenzie, 1992)¹¹. This definition identifies three segments among the homeless population:

- (a) **Primary homelessness:** people without conventional accommodation - living on the streets, in deserted buildings, in cars, under bridges, in improvised dwellings, etc.
- (b) **Secondary homelessness:** people moving between various forms of temporary shelter, including friends, relatives, emergency accommodation and boarding houses.
- (c) **Tertiary homelessness:** people living in single rooms in private boarding houses on a long-term basis - without their own bathroom, kitchen or security of tenure.

¹¹. For a review of the Australian debate on definition, see Chamberlain and Johnson (2001).

1.6.2. Typologies of houselessness based on risk or potential

The definition of houselessness distinguishes among different groups of houseless people through focusing on risk. The situation of being houseless can be acute, imminent and potential. The '*Bundesarbeitsgemeinschaft Wohnungslosenhilfe*' (BAWO) defines these as follows:¹²

- (a) **The potential houselessness** includes those where the housing loss is not imminent but may be approaching because of inadequate housing or income. People in this category would include those with very low incomes, those overstretched in debt, and some pensioners, single parents, handicapped persons and foreigners.
- (b) **The imminent houselessness** concerns those who are threatened with the loss of their current abode, who are incapable of keeping it, or who cannot provide a replacement for themselves. They would include those losing tied housing at the end of their employment, those to be released from institutions or prisons, some involved in divorce or separation, those threatened with eviction, and those coming to the end of a fixed term lease.
- (c) **The acute houselessness** includes living in the streets; in buildings meant for demolition, subway tunnels, railway wagons; in asylums, emergency shelters, institutions, inns and pensions; and people evicted from their former residence, staying with friends or relatives because of inadequate housing of their own, and living in housing that is an acute health hazard (cf. UNCHS/Habitat, 2000: 135).

Peressini, McDonald & Hulchanski (1996), in a Canadian study, use similar ideas like 'literally homeless', 'moving in and out of homelessness', and 'marginally housed and at risk of homelessness', where potentially or actually homeless people (who are sometimes called the 'hidden homeless') are neither counted nor considered. They may include people living in insecure accommodation and those who are regarded as either a concealed or a potential household/homeless (Pleace, Burrows & Quilgars, 1997: 1-18). Hidden refugees and asylum-seekers are generally excluded from national counts (FEANTSA, 1999)¹³

Daly (1996, pp. 11-23) has suggested five point classification, based on the risk run by people who are, or are potentially, homeless as:

¹². BAWO (*Bundesarbeitsgemeinschaft Wohnungslosenhilfe*), 1999; cf. UNCHS 1999c.

¹³. This section draws extensively on UNCHS/Habitat, 2000 written by the author.

- i. "People who are at risk or vulnerable to homelessness soon, perhaps within the next month, who need short-term assistance to keep them off the streets.
- ii. People whose primary or sole need is housing. They are usually working people who may be temporarily or episodically without homes and really need some financial or other assistance but do not have serious problems otherwise.
- iii. People who can become quasi-independent but need helps with life skills so that they can manage on their own.
- iv. People with substantial and/or multiple difficulties but who, with help, could live in group or sheltered-housing. These include those people who have been institutionalised or abused and who need time before setting up independently.
- v. People who need permanent institutional care or who may graduate on to some supportive or sheltered housing" (cf. UNCHS/Habitat, 2000: 29).

For immigrants and refugees, homelessness more often takes the form of hidden homelessness that is characterised by involuntary doubling-up or sharing housing accommodation, while in other cases, it is revealed by unsustainable rent burdens (Chan et al., 2005: 1-10 and Mattu, 2002: 6-7). An Action Plan for Toronto defines the homeless as those who are 'visible' on the streets or staying in hostels and the 'hidden homeless' are those who live in illegal or temporary accommodation, and those at imminent risk of becoming homeless (Golden et al., 1999: iii). Street or visible homelessness is an immediate problem, requiring immediate action, but it overall represents only a portion. Relative homelessness, which remains largely out of sight, involves far more people, albeit in a considerably less acute manner (Fiedler, Schuurman & Hyndman, 2006: 207-208). In Austria the risk component has been introduced to distinguish different groups of homeless. The situation of being houseless can be acute, imminent or potential.

1.6.3. Typologies of houselessness based on time

Hertzberg (1992, p. 156) places houseless on a continuum to categorise houseless people by how they perceive their houselessness and what they want for the future. This typology offers three groups of people, 'teeterers', 'resistors' and 'accommodators', on the basis of their characteristics, perceptions and the length of time they have been homeless. It suggests that 'resistors' are fighting against homelessness, 'teeterers' are ambivalent to it and 'accommodators' have accepted it (see Table 1.6).

Table 1.6: Characteristics of Population on Hertzberg's Continuum of Houselessness

Characteristics	Resistors	Teeterers	Accommodators
Length of Homelessness	Brief (2-4 years)	Longer (4-10 years)	Long-term (10+ years)
Attitude to condition	Fight against	Ambivalent	Accepting
Staying where?	Inside	Most outside	outside
Reason for homelessness	Not own decision	Not own decision	Not own decision
Desire for more education	Most want	Some want	Few want
Literate	National average	most	Half
Severe family dysfunction	Some	Almost all	Most
View childhood positively	Almost all	most	Almost none
Desire for own place	Almost all	Some	Few
Realistic hopes for the future	Most	Few	None

Source: Hertzberg, 1992, p. 156.

- (a) **The resistors:** are those people who have been in stable employment and have spent the least time as homeless. She begins with the reasoning that, when a person experiences the traumatic event of becoming homeless through illness, loss of a job, housing and/or a broken relationship, s/he assumes that it will be short-lived and that it should actively be resisted. Resistors are determined to get off the streets, and they firmly believe that they will be successful in doing so. They hold realistic hopes for the future, with expectations of upward mobility. Many are recovering alcoholics. Their literacy is above the national average and family dysfunction is low. When the resistor's effort to extricate him/herself through job hunting is unsuccessful and affordable housing is not found, they become discouraged, their self-esteem declines, and shame and guilt grow. Shame keeps them from calling on state support systems. Alienation, anger and frustration over such circumstances often turn inward, manifested in depression or, a side route, joining the long-term homeless whose accepting/acceptable subculture seems welcoming while the larger society rejects. Drinking or substance abuse kill the pain of rejection and become a daily routine (Hertzberg, 1992: 155-156).
- (b) **The teeterers:** have been homeless for a longer period and tend to have significant personal barriers to stability, mental illness, alcoholism, and severe family dysfunction. Any push could tip them in one direction or the other. They regard their homeless circumstances less negatively than do the resistors. Although they hope to stabilise their lives, such hope is edged with despair. They have twice as much family dysfunction as the resistors (Hertzberg, 1992: 158).

- (c) **The accommodators:** are the smallest group on this continuum, yet they are sometimes identified as representative of homeless people by the general public and the popular press. They are the traditional 'bums and hobos' and tend to have been on the streets for a long time. Even in severe climates, most stay outside, rarely using shelters. They are proud of their independence, usually taking no welfare payments. They are mostly illiterate, not upwardly mobile, and generally do not wish for a home of their own. Family dysfunction is common; most have very negative recollections of childhood. None have realistic hopes for the future. Houselessness has been accepted and they tend to be content with their lives, some claiming to have chosen this lifestyle.¹⁴ Most have lost their jobs and believe that there is no place for them in society. They profess no wish to have a part in society, preferring instead their freedom. They have accommodated themselves to being homeless (Hertzberg, 1992: 158).

There is evidence that long term houselessness generates its own lifestyle. This condition of homelessness as a lifestyle as seen by Grunberg (1998, pp. 241-261) combines impulsiveness, clusters of unsolved problems, and a lack of social and other supports, interacting and perpetuating the lifestyle. These conditions drag the person down.

Kuhn & Culhane (1998, pp. 207-232) examine visitors to shelters and group them into transitionally homeless, episodically homeless, and chronically homeless. A last classification is used in a study about houselessness in the community of Australian aborigines and takes the time component as criteria, therefore, distinguishing situational or temporary, episodic and chronic forms of homelessness.

- (a) **The transitionally homeless:** these people are younger and less likely to have problems related to substance abuse, and/or medical/mental health problems. The transitionally homeless should be targeted with preventive and resettlement assistance.
- (b) **The episodically (temporary) homeless:** population falls into the temporarily homeless category are homeless only for a short period of time (National Alliance to End Homelessness, 2010: 1 and Doolin 1986: 229-231). Temporary homelessness is primarily due to the lack of access to affordable housing and/or unexpected financial burdens

¹⁴ Such choice is questionable when it was made by a child in response to parental chemical dependency and constant mobility, or one who believed that his/her leaving would provide more food for his siblings (Hertzberg, 1992: 149-161).

(Cunningham, 2009: 5). The individuals and households that fall into this category simply need rental subsidies or open access to affordable housing to stabilise their lives (Culane & Metraux, 2008: 111-121). They often rely on emergency shelters during this transitional period which are typically less costly to support (Corporation for Supportive Housing, 2004: 8). They suffer progressively from more of the problems and less likely to be white and young. They can be helped with transitional housing and residential treatment (Kuhn & Culhane, 1998: 207-232).

- (c) **The chronically homeless:** this means that they are homeless for 'long periods of time or cycle in and out of homelessness' (Doolin, 1986: 229-231). This portion of the homeless population is the most difficult to house. They tend to have mental disorders and addictions to harmful or illegal substances that make it difficult for them to sustain housing (Dennis, Levine & Osher, 1991: 815-835). They argue that tackling their problems with supported housing and long-term care would have a significant effect on homelessness (Kuhn & Culhane, 1998: 207-232).

Two cohorts of homeless young people were identified as 'newly homeless' and 'experienced homeless'. Based on information from providers of services to homeless young people about the experiences of their clients, the '**newly homeless young people**' were defined as those who had been living away from a parent or guardian for less than 6 months, and the '**experienced homeless**' were defined as those young people who were living away from a parent or guardian for more than 6 months (Rosenthal et al., 2008: 297-298). Farrow et al., (1992, pp. 717-726) recognised four categories of homeless youth which are now widely recognised and accepted in the literature: 'situational runaways', 'runaways', 'throwaways', and 'systems youth'. **The situational runaways youth** are largest in number, are those who generally return home after a short absence, whereas, **runaways youth** are gone for longer periods of time because of abuse or other forms of serious conflict with parents. **Throwaway youth** are those whose parents initiated the separation by abandoning the adolescent or by asking him/her to leave the home. Finally, **systems youth** are those who are running from private or public institutions, such as foster homes, and do not have recent, regular contact with family members.

1.6.4. Typologies of houselessness based on continuum

There is a considerable body of literature that argues for a continuum approach either a houselessness continuum or a house-to-houselessness continuum (Watson & Austerberry, 1986: 97-102). At the one end of the latter continuum, the more encompassing one, lie satisfactory and secure forms of housing and, at the other, lies sleeping rough.

Speak (2004) analysed that the rural people, migrated from the rural parts to cities and large towns for trade and hawk goods on the streets, are quite literally shelterless and live out on the streets, and tolerate houselessness during their sojourns in the city (p. 473). Speak divides these people into three categories: 'supplementary homelessness', 'survival homelessness' and 'crisis homelessness'. The two groups, supplementary and survival homeless, appear a little different at first glance, though the locations and the conditions of their shelter are virtually the same; they do the same work for the same money. However, the difference lies in their connectedness to their previous lives and places of origin, and their perception of their homeless situation (p. 476).

- (a) **The supplementary homelessness:** develops when people, often lone men, leave their village homes in search of employment in the city. In this respect, the origin of their homelessness, i.e. economic migration, is similar to that of many homeless people. However, for a number of reasons, it is possible for the supplementary homeless person, by sleeping rough and not spending money on housing, to save and send money home to supplement his rural livelihood. Thus, supplementary homeless people regularly send money to their home and invest little in their shelter. Supplementary homeless people may return to their villages and their families at quite regular intervals, like after every few months; and plan to return permanently once the money they have sent is sufficient to meet some immediate requirement like to buy more land or to help build a new house, or to pay for a wedding etc. The land and housing of supplementary homeless people is improved by their homelessness (Speak, 2004: 470-476).
- (b) **The survival homelessness:** the people whose rural livelihoods were/are marginal to begin with, do not return to their homes and become part of the survival homeless. The origins of survival homelessness are often the same as the supplementary homeless, in that, many survival homeless people have migrated in search of employment. Survival homeless people do not send money home and seldom return to home. Any land or housing that the

survival homeless group might have had falls into disrepair but these people frequently try to improve their dwellings. For this group, the survival homelessness, beginning as supplementary homelessness, eventually becomes a new home situation over the time (Speak, 2004: 473-476).

- (c) **The crisis homelessness:** refers to personal or household crisis, brought about by family break-up, bereavement, disaster or eviction. This category can also include the people who are in a state of personal crisis owing to poor mental health or drug or alcohol abuse. Those who fall into this category have the least chance of exercising choice or control over their situation and are unlikely to experience homelessness as an opportunity or upwards trajectory (Speak, 2004: 476-477).

1.6.5. Typologies of houselessness based on responsibility for alleviating actions

The definition of houselessness is one which legally obligates a local authority to help the houseless people. Thus, it becomes an standard yard stick apparatus that can delimit the houselessness to exclude many people who do not have a home (i.e. single men living rough) because the state is not willing to house them at 'taxpayers' expense (Neale, 1997: 47-61).

The statutory definition of houselessness in the United Kingdom states that a person or household is houseless if they have no accommodation, that they are legally entitled to occupy. The accommodation must be reasonable and it must be reasonable for the household to reside in it. However, if a local authority can show that a household has become houseless 'intentionally', or that the household or person has no local connection, or that they fall outside any of the priority need groups, it no longer has any obligation to accept that household as houseless. Groups defined as being in 'priority need' are:

- i. households containing dependent children or a pregnant woman;
- ii. people who are vulnerable in some way (due to age, physical or mental disability, etc.); or
- iii. people who become houseless by emergency or natural hazards such as fire or flood, etc.

(Neale, 1997: 47).

1.7. Determinants of houselessness

The lack of a house results in the severe loss of privacy, security, dignity of person and possessions & comfort etc. More drastic changes are the living conditions of the segment of the houseless community that end up, not in homeless shelters or night shelters, but living on

the streets of the cities. The majority of the extant literature reflects the common assumptions that most of the houseless persons are relatively homogeneous and their problems are due to social and economic factors such as the lack of affordable housing & employment, poor education & skills, physical & mental illness, substance addiction, lack of social service programmes, etc (Caton, 1990: 186), because inequalities in access to employment, education, health care, housing, and welfare benefits left/leave many citizens in the conditions of pronounced economic deprivation. There are many theories regarding the increase in the volume of houselessness. The changing nature of housing and employment opportunities as well as the lack of supportive programmes for the poor, and mentally & physically ill people, are among the leading issues that are assumed to have increased houselessness (Burt, 1991: 903-936). This corresponds with the findings from the 2008 Hunger and Homelessness Survey that identified the top three leading causes of houselessness as (i) lack of affordable housing, (ii) unemployment, and (iii) mental illness.

The classifications of each individual aspect and attributes of houseless people should not be confused with the explanations of houselessness. Just because a significant percentage of houseless individuals may be drug abusers, does not explain why they are houseless. They may very well have become drug abusers after losing their houses. Cooper (1995, p. 7) argued against adopting a conceptual framework which views houselessness as a state in which some individuals and families cannot maintain and/or acquire a house through the normal channels of ownership or rental in the private housing market. That being said, there is not one specific reason that can be identified as the sole cause of houselessness; it is typically a combination of internal (mental & physical health, addiction to harmful or illegal substances, etc.) and external factors (lack of available employment, inadequate supply of low-income housing, etc.) that lead to social and financial vulnerability (Burt, 1991: 903-936). Thus, genesis of houselessness runs the gamut of the loss of jobs, business closings, broken relationships, low level of education & skills, drug or alcohol addiction, family violence, mental illness, fire in or condemnation of apartments, lack of affordable housing, long-term poverty, etc. (Hertzberg 1992: 152).

1.7.1. Economic determinants

Houselessness occurs where the core economic institutions, like housing markets, the labour markets and the financial markets cannot produce and distribute housing resources in an

effective, efficient and equitable manner. Most of the people experience houselessness as a part of a state of material deprivation (i.e. poverty) and often prolonged due to unemployment, illiteracy, etc. The economic dimension points out that these core institutions are all markets, known to create and reinforce inequality especially to those who have limited assets. Effective interventions, therefore, cannot afford to ignore the nature of economic institutions and consistent economic policies. Thus, economic issues are commonly identified as major factors contributing to houselessness (Caton, 1990: 150-151 and Wolch & Dear, 1993: 239-240), but not all people with financial problems become un-domiciled (Baum & Burnes, 1993: 3-5). There are some major economic determinants of houselessness which are discussed as following:

1.7.1. a. Personal intention

Irrespective of his/her current housing situation or priority need, an individual having adjudged as intentionally houseless has no right to permanent re-housing rather than temporary accommodation, while, s/he arranges for new housing. A person becomes intentionally houseless if he deliberately does or fails to do anything in consequence of which he ceases to occupy accommodation which is available for his use and the continued occupation of which would have been reasonable for him (Loveland, 1991: 284). Thus, intentionality has significant consequences on houselessness. Hence, obtaining housing often requires a more lengthy and sincere commitment on the part of shelter-seekers than merely being in shelter. Once the houseless gets access to the shelter system, his success will depend, in part, on the current characteristics of the members of the household (Early, 2005: 36). The illegally evicted tenants or battered women not pursuing legal remedies to retain their accommodation could be considered houseless through deliberate failure to act (Loveland, 1991: 284).

A number of myths exist about the houselessness in society (Chafetz, 1988: 325-335 and Wright, 1989: 45-53) that do not accurately illustrate the majority of houseless. Some of these myths portray the houseless as deinstitutionalised, mentally & physically ill patients, welfare-dependent people, alcoholics & drug addicted, people houseless by choice, and people unwilling to cope effectively with their life circumstances, etc. (Davis, 1996: 176). The last myth is termed blaming the victim (Ryan, 1976: 189-205). That is, the houseless themselves are responsible for the situation they are in, and if they only had

the proper initiative they could better improve their circumstances (Hill, 1991: 298-310). Mistakenly, lack of initiative, laziness, poor use of resources, and aimlessness are identified as classic symptoms of houselessness (Tracy & Stoecker, 1993: 43-59). However, "Homelessness is characterised by a levelling process, in which, personal and demographic characteristics have no observable impact on a person's ability to adapt and to survive on the streets. To be homeless is to be truly disadvantaged" (Peressini, 2003: 386-387).

1.7.1. b. High cost or rent of housing

Houselessness is not a sudden event in the lives of most of the houseless people. It is more usually the culmination of a long process of economic hardship, isolation, and social dislocation that can be regarded as the cycle of houselessness (Wolch, Dear & Akita, 1988: 443-453). But, rapidly increasing land prices and the failure of the low-cost housing supply system to keep pace with the natural increase in urban households forces many people to set up their houses in one of the growing squatter cities. They do this in order to exist as an independent unit rather than to live in overcrowded conditions with friends or family (Speak 2004: 472). The probability of being houseless usually increases if the household lives in an area where the rent needed to occupy the lowest level of housing available is high (Early 2005: 29). O'Flaherty (1995: 13-49 and 1996: 100-102) argues that landlords face, among other things, the maintenance costs and the cost of collecting rent that creates a floor, below which, rents will not fall. Below this rent, rental property would be converted to some other uses. The subpopulation of houseless who are commonly referred to as the 'working poor' is also continuously growing. These are individuals (both men and women) who are employed but do not earn enough money to ensure their economic self-sufficiency. Generally, these men and women work at low or minimum-wage jobs in cities where rental costs, even at the lowest levels, are beyond their ability to pay (Axelson & Dail, 1988: 465).

1.7.1. c. Savings or remittances to home

Several people are working to earn money for a specific event, such as a sister's wedding, to buy land, cattle or any other needed property to support the family in villages, etc. They maintain a strong connection to their villages and view their houseless period as temporary even though, they have lived on the footpaths, following the work, for several years. They do not regard themselves as being disconnected from their homes or their social networks (Speak 2004: 472). Many of the houseless people in the footpaths had, initially, come to supplement

their rural livelihood or improve their land and housing in the rural villages. Like their supplementary houseless neighbours, they generally came alone at first, intending to work and send money home to the village. However, unlike the supplementary homeless people in the same fpptpaths the survival houseless are often unable to send enough money to home to improve their village situation. In some cases, it is because they have no land, or because their village land is too poor to support them, even with the additionally earned income from the city (p. 473).

1.7.1. d. Low income

People can become permanently un-housed as a result of a temporary negative income shock and loss of income or low income (Crane, 1996: 389-398 and Keigher & Greenblatt, 1992: 457-465), as low income, combined with an inability to borrow or hire the accommodation, forces people into houselessness in the first period, and the resultant productivity loss means that they cannot afford housing in the subsequent period. Increase in income lowers the probability of being houseless (Early, 2005: 40). Indeed, there are income profiles, under which, people would optimally choose to be housed at all times, and yet, in which, the credit constraint implies that the person instead ends up un-housed at all dates (Glomm & John, 2002: 605). The average income of houseless persons is obviously quite small; they consider money as their single most important need (La Gory et al., 1989: 1-20). Houseless persons' income, job contacts, and access to potential sources of material support, should increase with their extent and use of social ties (La Gory, Ritchey & Fitzpatrick, 1991: 204).

1.7.1. e. Unemployment

It can be helpful for the policy formulation to know the economic situation of houseless persons, if they are unemployed and for how long and how often. For a better understanding of the situation, it is also important to have information on their strategies to earn money like begging, working in the informal sectors, prostitution, trading of drugs, social welfare, etc. (Springer, 2000: 477). Many people have deliberately abandoned or left their homes, either temporarily or permanently, in search of work (Dupont, 1998: 99-124). However, the condition of houselessness would reduce a person's employment opportunities. Potential employers may be less inclined to hire houseless persons if houselessness is associated with high rates of personal problems, namely drug use, mental & physical illness, oldness, poor health, etc. Unobserved factors that increase a household's probability of being houseless will

also affect the income of the household (Early, 2005: 37). Ironically, although unemployment is a major cause of houselessness (Stergiopoulos & Herrmann, 2003: 376), but its rate amongst the floating population in urban areas is lower than amongst the local urban population livelihood (Speak, 2004: 471). That is why, the emphasis should be placed more on 'loss of conventional work' than on the loss of a 'conventional dwelling' in Japan. In particular, there is still a strong tendency to see the houseless only as single male day labourers who are out of work, and consequently policy responses primarily concern employment promotion. Of course, unemployment is an important factor of the houselessness, and seeing houselessness as the end of the road for the unemployed is not a mistaken view (Iwata, 2010: 127). People whose homes were repossessed following housing debt caused by unemployment, who left depressed areas seeking work, or fled domestic violence, might all be said deliberately to have undertaken actions resulting in houselessness (Loveland, 1991: 284).

1.7.1. f. Poverty

The over whelming reason that people find themselves into houselessness is associated with extreme poverty (Rossi & Wright, 1987: 19-32). Responses reflect the complexity of the issues but poverty is the common denominator of houselessness. Many have been poor for a long time and are tipped over the edge by loss of job and abode. Others have been middle class, pulled by circumstances or bad choices into poverty (Hertzberg, 1992: 152). The houseless phenomenon is usually associated with poverty at the lowest end on the poverty scale and with social exclusion (Costa, 1998: 80). It has been stated that houselessness is a result of 'desperate poverty' combined with unaffordable housing in communities too strapped to support their most troubled members (Burt, 2001:1) but it is much more complicated than that. Understanding the root of extreme poverty and the existing social vulnerabilities of the houseless people helps to put the problem in perspective because houselessness is a housing problem, first and foremost, but the characteristics of the houseless make their housing problems atypical' (Wright & Rubin, 1991: 937- 956). Thus, houselessness is a direct consequence of poverty and the grossly unequal distribution of wealth and power, globally, nationally and regionally (Kellett & Moore, 2003: 123). Many of the women heading homeless families have never established themselves as functional, self-sufficient, autonomous adults due, in part, to having been socialised themselves in a cycle of poverty. Most have long histories of interpersonal and economic problems, and residential instability

which, combined with over-whelming family responsibilities, render them marginal at best in their ability to be socially functional (Axelson & Dail, 1988: 468).

Houselessness may be understood as comprising two broad, sometimes overlapping and categories of problems. The first one is experienced by the people living through what might be quite short periods of crisis poverty. Their houselessness tends to be transient, a disruptive episode in their lives that are marked by routine hardship. For these people, shelters or other makeshift accommodations provide a way of bridging a temporary gap in resources. Their housing troubles may be coupled with other problems, like unemployment, low or obsolete job skills, poor parenting or household management skills, or domestic violence, etc. All these problems should be addressed if re-housing efforts are to be successful, but their persistent poverty is the decisive factor that turns unforeseen crises, or even minor setbacks, into bouts of homelessness. The second category comprises of those men and women for whom houselessness can appear to be a persistent way of life. Although they constitute a minority of those who become houseless, they are the most visible, and tend to dominate the public image of houselessness. Alcohol and other drug abuse, severe mental illness, chronic health problems or long-standing family difficulties may compound whatever employment and housing problems they have. When their financial resources and family support are exhausted, they resort to the street. Their situation is more complex than that of those who are houseless because of poverty (USA, 1994: 18-23).

1.7.1. g. Developmental projects

The term 'displacement' refers to the state resulting from the loss of a familiar physical or social environment of an individual. The word is defined as the act or process of removing something from its usual or proper place (Simpson & Weiner, 1989: 814-815). When we lose our place in the world or our role in society, the basic sense of self and belonging is diminished. A diminished sense of self and belonging produces anxiety and depression (Choenarom, Williams & Hagerty, 2005: 18-29; Fullilove, 1996: 1516-1523 and Ryan et al., 2006: 560-566) and diminishes social and functional abilities necessary for a healthy and meaningful life. Displaced persons include the houseless, refugees, emmigrants & immigrants, people fleeing domestic abuse, and those uprooted by wars, conflicts, and natural disasters. Displacement exerts its damaging effects on anyone who loses a home and a place in society (cf. Vandemark, 2007: 242). The deterioration of traditional livelihoods is accelerated by

economic situations, and coupled with the profitability of the food markets, these changes have led to a rapid increase in farming (Vidal, 2003: 8). This new industry is encroaching upon a great deal of the original fertile land and destroying traditional agricultural practices. As a result, poor farmers are abandoning their land and rural labourers cannot find work, and are forced to migrate to cities and, being houseless, live on the streets.

In the redevelopment of the areas where the housing is legal, the compensation that house owners usually receive is rarely enough to allow them to purchase another house comparable to the one they lose. Tenants or squatters hardly ever receive any compensation; just a notice to quit and, at best, a small token payment. The implication is that governments view tenants as second class citizens with fewer rights than those rich enough to afford the purchase of their own house or flat. The same is true in other large-scale evictions where house owners received very inadequate compensation but tenants received nothing (Environment and Urbanisation editorial, 1994: 3-7). The issue is not that redevelopment, which displaces people, should not take place within cities. Inevitably, in any growing city, there will be a need to redevelop certain areas and for public agencies to acquire land for public uses and for infrastructure. The important issues are the ways, in which, they are currently implemented with little or no dialogue with those who will be displaced, the lack of respect for the needs of those evicted, and the lack of any attempt to develop solutions which minimise the scale of the evictions and the disruption caused to those who have to move. Poor people need their rights defined in law to give them a basis for negotiation. Guidelines are needed to deal with the four great failings: "no warning, no consultation, no compensation and no provision for resettlement" (Environment and Urbanisation editorial, 1994: 6).

1.7.2. Social determinants

Houselessness also occurs when fundamental social relations have undergone radical changes or ruptures, that make it impossible for traditional households to function properly. The rapid changes and disruptions in social relations can contribute to the stress of housing insecurity and highlights the importance of supportive family life and the effect of ineffective parenting, as effective intervention, such as family support, child protection, family mediation and the prevention of domestic violence, can be important in addressing houselessness. In fact, inadequate income & employment and the lack of affordable housing contribute to houselessness; yet these predicaments are inextricably intertwined with other significant

variables. Integrants implicated in houselessness include family & social networks and individual conditions, especially psychological problems (Baum & Burnes, 1993: 86-91; Susser, Struening & Conover, 1987: 1599-1601 and Zozus & Zax, 1991: 535-537).

1.7.2. a. Lack of affordable housing stocks

The pathways into houselessness includes deinstitutionalisation and lack of affordable housing (Crane, 1996: 389-398; Doolin, 1986: 229-231; Tully & Jacobson, 1994: 61-81; Roth & Bean, 1986: 712-719 and Cohen, 1911: 5-14), and an unstable residential history (Keigher & Greenblatt, 1992: 457-465). The common thread is a precarious housing situation that ultimately translates into increased risk of houselessness. An associated problem is the severe shortage of low-cost housing related to cutbacks in federal housing aid (Hill, 1991: 298-310 and Wright, 1988: 64-69). The reduction in low-income housing stock and loss of accommodation (Stergiopoulos & Herrmann, 2003: 376) contributed to a houselessness crisis that has had dire consequences for persons with severe mental illness. Unaffordable, overcrowded, and substandard housing situations, stemming from a lack of affordable housing, are consistent with definitions of being at-risk of houselessness (Eberle, Kraus & Pomeroy, 2001: 6-8; Forrest, 1999: 17-36; Hulchanski & Shapcott, 2004: 3 -11 and Wolch, Dear & Akita, 1988: 443-453).

According to Murray (1990, p. 35) most people at-risk cannot find appropriate housing that is affordable, supply of affordable low-cost housing results in high rent to income ratios among those least well-off and puts them at-risk for economically-induced houselessness (Bunting, Walks & Filion, 2004: 361-393 and Moore & Skaburskis, 2004: 395-413). Houselessness occurs because of a fundamental non-convexity in the technology for the provision of housing services: below a certain level, housing is unavailable (Glomm & John, 2002: 593). Mattu (2002, p. 35) argued that immigrants and refugees are living in overcrowded, unaffordable, substandard, dirty, unpleasant, and poorly maintained accommodations. Combined with external factors such as the non-availability of low-cost, affordable, and inhabitable housing, dependence upon public assistance, and lack of personal and social supports, the picture of the houseless family becomes very ugly (Axelson & Dail, 1988: 468). The provision of housing enabled restoration of status in most elderly homeless (Barak & Cohen, 2003: 153).

1.7.2. b. Substance abuse

In addition to low-cost housing availability and individual factors (severe mental illness), substance abuse augments the risk for both houselessness (Corrigan & Anderson, 1984: 535-549; Koegel, Burnam & Farr, 1988: 1011-1018 and Rosenheck et al., 1989: 937-942) and major health problems (Martens, 2001: 13-33; Plumb, 1997: 973-975 and Smereck & Hockman, 1998: 299-319). The habit of substance abuse is highly prevalent among houseless youth (Thompson et al., 2010: 193-217). The substance abuse plays a determining role in household lives (Early, 2005: 36). The rate of substance abuse among women is so much lower than among men that substance abuse is less severe in homeless women than in never homeless men (Opler et al., 2001: 449-456). Alcohol or drug abuse is common among the houseless population (Stergiopoulos & Herrmann, 2003: 376), but not to the extent of the stereotype. Estimates of the houseless that are alcoholic vary from less than forty percent (Wright, 1988: 64-69) to twenty percent (Chafetz, 1988: 325-335). However, alcoholism has been linked to mental illness. Up to seventy percent of the severely mentally ill suffer from alcoholism (Fischer & Breakey, 1991: 1115-1128). Only 20 to 30 percent of the houseless, however, are considered mentally ill (Hertzberg, 1992: 149-161).

Houseless more directly focus on the risk factors that contribute to the decision to leave and/or stay away from homes. Abuse, prostitution, criminal behaviour, housing, mental health, and drug & alcohol abuse, all have been identified not only as significant precursors to running but also contributors to chronic or persistent houselessness (Farrow et al., 1992: 717-726; Raleigh-DuRoff, 2004: 561-572; Klein et al., 2000: 331-339 and Unger et al., 1997: 3). The probability of being houseless increases if the head has a problem with alcohol or illicit drugs in the family, because drug abuse is a major contributor to houselessness (Early, 2005: 29-44).

1.7.2. c. Lack of family/relatives and family conflicts/violence

The recent changes in the family structures, economic situations of individuals and states, the breakdown of social institutions and the increasing drug consumption in many regions have given additional importance to the problem of secure and minimum standard housing (Springer, 2000: 475-476). Among the elderly homeless population, males predominate, and the majority have no ties to a partner (Barak & Cohen, 2003: 153). The practical effects of houselessness, such as lack of employment, lack of families, friends and possessions,

contribute to single homeless people's feelings of disengagement from the culture that binds us into society (cf. Kellett & Moore, 2003: 126). They argue that the significance of having a home links the identity of a person with the place and the social context, and that living in a hostel excludes people from the experience of having a home. This reflects the marginalisation or social exclusion that tends to be experienced as well as houselessness.

The discussions regarding 'domestic violence' regularly include the term home, the place where it takes place (Meth, 2003: 317-327). Unlike normative notions of the family which assume that all families are places of nurture and support (Wright, 1997: 2), the families of many houseless young people have been characterised by parent-child conflict, discipline problems, poor communication, poor supervision, physical and sexual abuse, lack of affection and caring, substance abuse problems, etc. (cf. Hyde, 2005: 172; McCormack, Janus & Burgess, 1986: 387-395; Miller, Eggertson-Tacon & Quigg, 1990: 271-289; Whitbeck & Simons, 1990: 108-125; Rotheram-Borus, Koopman & Ehrhardt, 1991: 1188-1197 and Kipke et al., 1997b: 415-431). Young people's initial runaway episode was perpetrated by stressful events in the home, such as family conflict, maltreatment by parents or other family members, and parental substance abuse, etc (Rew, Fouladi & Yockey 2002: 139-145 and Thompson, 2004: 13-26). Growing up in these families may increase the child's risk of precocious departure from home, substance abuse and ultimately disaffiliation from pro-social society (Piliavin et al., 1993: 576-598). The domestic violence and family breakdowns are major causes of women's houselessness in the West (Hoch, 2000: 867; Hague, 2010: 50 and Stergiopoulos & Herrmann, 2003: 376).

According to Hyde (2005) many people left their homes to escape the chronic conflicts that they experienced with their parents like stressful life events, (the re-marriage of a parent or the death of a family member, etc.) one's own desires for experimentation with personal styles, drugs, political beliefs, and peer relations. Several turned to drugs & alcohol and stayed away from home for extended periods of time to avoid conflicts (p. 181). Physical abuse and intense familial conflict are primary factors that force the people to leave home and become houseless. Both abuse and family conflict are often attributed to parents' substance abuse, but also to differences with respect to personal style (e.g. clothing, hair colour and cut, body piercing, etc.), religious beliefs, sexual orientation, and educational performance. Many people claimed that they left home because they were fed up with the conditions they were living in.

They were responsible for at least some of the conflicts that led to their departure from home. They wanted to travel and experience new opportunities (p. 175).

Lack of family stability and death of spouse or relative are also important factors for houselessness (Moneyham & Connor, 1995: 12 and Crane, 1996: 389-398). Major themes that emerged from the data are abandonment, abuse, family alcoholism, isolation, and family conflict. Such childhood experiences place at-risk for a life without stable, healthy relationships and support. People who find themselves facing personal or household crises which so often lead to houselessness, such as the death of a spouse, unemployment or family breakdown, are left to fend for themselves (Speak, 2004: 477). Increase in teenage pregnancies and single-parent families, parents' unwillingness to house their adult offspring, and offsprings' unwillingness to accept that they should begin adult or married life in their parents' homes, are seen as the prime causes of contemporary houselessness.

1.7.2. d. Age and sex differentials

The men and women have different pathways into houselessness. In other words, men are more likely to attribute houselessness due to loss of jobs, physical & mental health problems and drug and alcohol problems, than women who more frequently endorsed eviction, interpersonal conflict, and loss of support as the major reasons for houselessness (Tessler, Rosenheck & Gamache, 2001: 243-254). The immediate precipitants of houselessness differ between sexes, with family dysfunction and gradual loss of social supports more likely to underlie houselessness in older women (Adams, 1991: 3-24). Men are more likely, than women, to have experienced a prior houseless spell, to remain continuously houseless for a longer period, and to generally have a higher prevalence of chronic houselessness (Di Blasio & Belcher, 1995: 131-137; Wong, Pilavin & Wright, 1998: 1-27 and Zlotnick, Roberston & Lahiff, 1999: 209-224). Wives in matrilineal societies are likely to find themselves dispossessed on the death of their husband; children may be expected to leave at a certain age, or when their mother finds a new partner, or if they fall foul of family norms, e.g., through becoming pregnant outside marriage. Inheritance rights (both *de facto* and *de jure*¹⁵) in many countries are a major reasons why women become houseless. This issue is of particular concern in post-conflict situations (UNCHS/Habitat, 1999e).

¹⁵. An individual has the power or right according to both law and in reality (*de jure* and *de facto*).

Kondratas (1991, pp. 1226-1231) observed that out of every three poor adults, two are women. This feminisation of poverty contributes to the ever-increasing number of houseless women and children. Women and children make up over one-third of the houseless population and are the fastest growing segment of the population that finds itself houseless (Hertzberg, 1992: 149-161). About three-fourths of these are families headed by single women (McChesney, 1990: 191-205). Sexual abuse and wife battering account for the increasing number of women and their children desperately leaving a household only to find themselves houseless (Hill, 1991: 298-310 and Kondratas, 1991: 1226-1231). A growing number of houseless women are teenage mothers who are without social support, family network, education, and employment (Ray, 1993: 189-205). Houseless women possess less-than-adequate education, are younger in age than houseless men, have very limited job opportunities, and have the additional responsibility of child care (Bassuk, 1993: 340-347). The houseless are primarily ethnic women and children who are extremely poor, and are without housing, employable skills, and social support systems (Davis, 1996: 177). Female headed households and households with children are more likely to be houseless (Early, 2005: 40). Home ownership does not simply act to reproduce patriarchal family relations at an ideological level. The structure of provision of this form of tenure acts to systematically marginalise women and to further reinforce the nuclear family household and women's economic dependence on a male partner (Watson, 1988: 28).

1.7.2. e. Physical and mental disabilities/illness

Rossi (1989) documents that incidence of various illnesses are higher among the houseless people than among the rest of the population and also argued that there is a reciprocal relation between physical illness and becoming homeless (p. 157). The houseless incorporates older, de-institutionalised people. Many houseless people are predisposed to mental illness from the consequences associated with houselessness, such as poor health and physical disabilities (Wright, 1990: 49-64 and Keigher & Greenblatt, 1992: 457-465). Serious mental illness and physical co-morbidity are common among houseless (Barak & Cohen, 2003: 153; Early, 2005: 36 and Stergiopoulos & Herrmann, 2003: 376). The health conditions of individuals without adequate shelter are equally important. Mentally ill (whether chronically or not), and drug consumers might be over-represented in the houseless population. Tuberculosis has an easy target in these people as well as AIDS, skin infestation, asthma,

stomach ailment, various types of aches in the body and other sexual transmitted diseases, because of the unhygienic conditions and the non-availability of preventive information and/or methods (Springer, 2000: 477).

Weinreb and Rossi (1995, pp. 86-107) found that nearly half of all programmes for the houseless refused to accept clients with problems of drugs or alcohol and that roughly 40 percent of programmes rejected clients with mental health problems. Living on the streets in a public place implies an enormous capacity to adapt to new practical and social situations (Silva, 2007: 73).

1.7.2. f. Social disaffiliation and exclusion

The term 'social exclusion' was introduced into French political and academic discourse in 1974 (cf. Saith, 2001: 3), which applied it to the people facing learning or physical health problems. It has become so integrated into French Republican thought that all French political parties are publicly committed to policies promoting insertion and reinsertion. The concept of social exclusion leads to the argument that it is necessary to encourage both equality and justice, rather than trade one off against the other. "Indeed, if poverty is usually alleviated by social welfare policies, exclusion must be addressed by insertion, integration, the rights and entitlements of citizenship, and participation in social life. Redistributive policies may still be necessary, but the term exclusion calls for a rethinking of the terms of social solidarity" (Silver & Wilkinson, 1995: 17). Wolfe distinguishes six different types of exclusion: exclusion from livelihood, from social security & welfare, from consumption, from political choice, from bases of popular organisation and solidarity, and from an understanding of what is happening to the person concerned. He asks a question: To what extent is phenomenon of social exclusion under way in the industrial or post-industrial societies comparable to those in the developing societies? (Wolfe, 1995: 82 and Smith, 1999: 65). Homelessness is an extreme manifestation of social exclusion, as expressed by Talbot (2003, p. 12):

"Homelessness is a state in which people are not only excluded from basic shelter, but also from security, a place to belong, intimate relationships, neighbours, and all of the benefits of having a place to call one's own, such as the space and facilities to cook, space for hobbies and recreation etc. Over time, exclusion from one aspect of the normally expected benefits and resources of society leads to exclusion from others, and to a compounding set of reinforcing disadvantages".

Social exclusion is experienced through housing when the effect of housing processes denies certain social groups control over their daily lives, or impairs enjoyment of wider citizenship rights (Somerville, 1998: 761-780). Hence, social exclusion is also a major component of the houselessness. The concept implies a lack of social ties and relations revealing social marginalisation (Edgar, Doherty, & Mina-Coull, 1999: 47). This social exclusion and the 'detachment definition' apply to much of the traditional research about houseless men. It may not, however, apply to pavement-dwelling families and is unlikely to apply to the many millions of people living in squatter settlements throughout the world (cf. UNCHS/Habitat, 2000: 16). Service knowledge is critical, but not sufficient, for the houseless to meet their everyday requirements in a climate of very scarce resources. Informal networks link persons to important service information. Well-affiliated persons should be better informed of the services available to them. Thus, attachment has no bearing on income, anomie, psychotic symptoms, service knowledge, or environmental dissatisfaction for the houseless. For the general population, however, these are normal outcomes of affiliation (La Gory, Ritchey & Fitzpatrick, 1991: 204).

Bahr (1973) uses the homeless men of skid row to illustrate the affiliation or power relation. To understand power, he suggests, 'we must study its absence as well as its presence, and the circumstances in which minimal as well as maximal power is exercised' (p. 28). The houseless are characterised by intense poverty and powerlessness, which is a function of their extreme disaffiliation. In short, people are houseless because of their lack of social ties. What is called the 'isolation perspective' (p. 13) contends that houselessness, by its very nature, fosters detachment from social institutions and informal networks. People become homeless precisely because they fail to nurture or maintain social ties and hence do not receive normal instrumental or expressive assistance in a crisis. Thus, detachment is both a cause and a consequence of the homeless state (La Gory, Ritchey & Fitzpatrick, 1991: 202). The degree of affiliation is related to various aspects of personal power. It means that the lack of power, due to detachment from social networks, places the homeless in such dire straits (Bahr & Caplow 1973: 5-7). Houselessness itself significantly reduces persons' power over their own fate; it severely impairs basic controls over the physical and social environment. Social ties empower, but in most cases, do not suffice to solve the complex problems of the houseless (La Gory, Ritchey & Fitzpatrick, 1991: 203).

For general population, persons with substantial social networks exhibit better physical health (cf. Ferris Gory & Mullis 1991: 33-48) and lower mortality risks. Social ties facilitate and regulate good health practices (Umberson 1987: 306-319), provide nurturance in times of physical crisis (Tausig, 1986: 267-280), and allay depressed mood (Turner, 1981: 357-367). The mood, in turn, is associated with self-reported symptoms (Mechanic & Angel, 1987: 131-139 and Hagglund et al., 1988: 851-858), while, depression is often a function of life events or life circumstances mediated by social support systems (cf. Strauman, 1996: 193). Confronted with undesirable life events, the more socially affiliated people display fewer depressive symptoms. Thus, just as with physical health symptoms, mental health symptoms are expected to relate to affiliation in general populations (La Gory, Ritchey & Fitzpatrick, 1991: 203). For a general population, social attachment is associated with locus of control factors (Johnson & Sarason, 1978: 205-208 and Seeman & Seeman, 1983: 144-160), the extent to which individuals feel capable of exerting control over environmental events. Two concepts examined here fit this rubric. First, Anomie, (Srole 1956: 709-716) refers to a sense of social mal-integration and detachment, or self-to-others alienation. Rose (1962, pp. 834-838) demonstrates that persons closer to the center of social networks have lower anomie; Bell (1957, pp. 105-116) found anomie significantly related to social isolation. Second, Mastery, denotes 'the extent to which one regards one's own life chances as being under one's own control in contrast to being fatalistically ruled' (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978: 5). Affiliation heightens the feelings of mastery in the face of stressful life events (Pearlin et al., 1981: 337-356).

Zozus and Zax (1991) identified disaffiliation, or a lack of social ties, as a key individual factor contributing to houselessness. The definition of disaffiliation includes a sense of powerlessness and an absence of attachment to others through affectional bonds. A key source of disaffiliation is familial disruption during childhood and inconsistent care giving, which results in alienation from interpersonal relationships and society as a whole (Zozus & Zax, 1991: 535- 537). Indeed, many empirical studies suggest the absence of social ties among skid row's houseless (Bahr & Caplow, 1973: 53-64), yet no one demonstrates links between affiliative life experience differences among the houseless. The houseless are presumed to lead extremely impoverished lives because of disaffiliation, yet no research

shows that affiliated are any better off than disaffiliated skid-rowers (La Gory, Ritchey & Fitzpatrick, 1991: 202).

1.7.2. g. Unorganised night shelter homes

The acceptability of an accommodation depends not only on price, but also on season and dignity (Speak, 2004: 470). For example, whilst there is a need for more good quality night shelters in all the countries, it was also noted that, in Delhi, some night shelters have been closed because they were not being used optimally (The Times of India, October 27, 2001). Night shelters are not filled to capacity in the summer months, but houseless people say that this is because 'the night shelters are too dirty for humans to live in' (The Pioneer, September 28, 2001). One houseless man pointed out: "We prefer sleeping on the pavement. As the night shelters are full of bed bugs, the blankets are stinking, and worse, one has to pay for this filthy facility" (cf. Tipple & Speak, 2004: 11).

The streets of major cities are inhabited by thousands of people, sometimes alone but increasingly in family units. They live without any shelter from the elements or under makeshift shelter of cardboard or plastic sheeting, or in doorways and stairwells (Speak, 2004: 471). Many houseless people deliberately avoid night shelters because of the increased risk of physical harm encountered in this sort of housing. Fights, theft, rape, assault, and even murder are some of the dangers that the houseless face on any given night in a shelter. This constant risk of bodily harm led one group of researchers to argue that the houseless are "..... suspicious, fearful, and likely to be uncooperative" (Surber et al., 1988: 117).

1.7.2. h. Throwaways and runaways

Forced evictions are a particularly disturbing phenomenon for those in precarious housing. They are officially sanctioned acts with many harmful consequences for the affected people or group. Forced evictions are usually violent and discriminatory in nature; indeed, they are a type of urban violence (Agbola & Jinadu, 1997: 271-288). Forced eviction and relocation are so potentially damaging that (cf. UNCHS/Habitat, 2000: 54) forced resettlement is the worst thing you can do to people next to killing them.

There may be periods when those who are normally housed become houseless. When tenants are evicted, they have to find new dwellings to rent, or they may find refuge lodging with friends, sleeping on floors, in cheap bed and breakfast accommodation, etc. People most vulnerable to this are probably tenants and members of families whose accommodation is

dependent on their relationship with the house owner. The former may be common in societies where tenant rights are weak. The latter would include women and children (UNCHS/Habitat, 1999e).

The two main causes of children dislocating fully from their families are extreme poverty and abuse. The literature about street children frequently refers to children leaving home in search of a way of feeding themselves or fleeing abuse from alcoholic parents and step-parents (Bibars, 1998: 201-216 and Lusk, 1992: 293-305). Traditionally, leaving or running away from home was viewed as a form of delinquency characterised by disobedience and acting out (Lipschutz, 1977: 321-332; Hier, Korboot & Schweitzer, 1990: 761-771; Zide & Cherry, 1992: 155-168 and Schaffner, 1999: 40-63). In the mid to late 1970s, discourses about houseless youth began to change. Coinciding with an increased recognition of child maltreatment as a major public health and safety issue for children in the United States, a handful of researchers began to demonstrate that young people living on the streets have extensive histories of familial abuse and neglect; leaving home is one of the few options they have to escape from maltreatment (Kufeldt & Nimmo, 1987: 531-543 and cf. Hyde, 2008: 294).

1.7.3. Political determinants

The subject of houselessness is politically sensitive too, because the choice of the definition of homeless determines who will be enumerated and who will not, in the end, receive financial or other supportive services (Peressini, McDonald & Hulchanski, 1996: 2-22). Houselessness as the bottom end of the spectrum of housing situations is increasing, and indicating a deficit on the service and supply level. Therefore, information about the houseless should be of general interest to any government to develop a policy to target assistance to this poorest part of the population.

1.7.3. a. Flaws in governmental policies

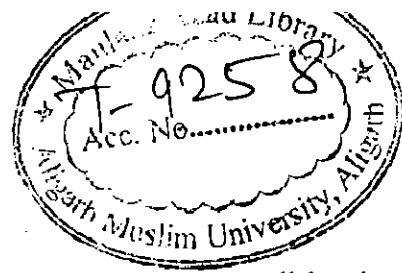
Houselessness is a state in which political institutions are unresponsive to the needs of the most vulnerable section of the community and cannot intervene effectively to achieve an equitable distribution of housing costs and benefits. This can be seen as a cynical way of saying that houselessness arises from the government's inability to achieve or maintain its social justice policy. However, it highlights three important aspects of houselessness. Firstly, houseless people and their advocates should attempt to influence the political process, often in

opposition to such powerful groups as homeowners and the housing industry. Secondly, houselessness is a sign of the inequitable distribution of housing costs and benefits in the community. Thirdly, effective intervention in the realm of social policies and programmes cannot be ignored.

The extent of the political pluralism inherent in governmental responses to houselessness is perhaps best illustrated, not by recalling that some state and local governments have not produced any significant measures to reduce houselessness (James & Kass, 1985: 319-323), but by noting that some local administrations have displayed open hostility toward houseless people, their responses being limited to supporting aggressive policing/policy tactics which encourage houseless inhabitants to move on and discourage houseless travellers from arriving at all. Through a series of vignettes, Smith (1993) has illustrated how a purportedly local houseless problem was actually embroiled in a politics of scale, encompassing body, home, community, urban, region, nation, global (p. 101). The example he used involved a series of conflicts over who should be able to claim the right to access a particular park. Previously, this space had been viewed as available to houseless peoples but more recently had become a target of middle and high class consumption. Restricting the use of the parks for houseless people while promoting its potential as a support for gentrification was a strategy that helped shift understanding of how the space of the parks should be seen. Consequently, the park became the site of a conflict between particular (local) houseless and housed bodies (p. 93).

1.7.3. b. Urban redevelopment

Eviction is an increasingly common cause of houselessness in developing countries as urban land prices increase rapidly, pushed upwards by the march of globalisation. As prices rise, the illegal and informal settlements in cities and at their peripheries, which may have been tolerated for years, become targets for developers (Berner, 1997: 167-182 and 2000: 554-566). Those living in such settlements are increasingly at-risk of eviction, especially tenants and sub-tenants, who are the least well protected (Durrand-Lasserve & Royston, 2002: 2-6). Forced evictions are very often violent and distressing (Agbola & Jinadu, 1997: 271-288). Indeed, they are such a form of emotional crisis that Freid (1963, pp. 124-152) spoke of people grieving for their homes. In some cases, this loss is made worse by the fact that the eviction is from a location, in which, the displaced person may have spent years developing a dwelling and social networks, having arrived there in a state of houselessness to begin with.



It should always be kept in mind that it is easy for governments at all levels to use the argument of eviction as a "necessary evil to effect a greater social good. However, this is mostly at the expense of the urban poor and, in those societies where there are insufficient checks and balances on the power of officials, the need to even present and defend a case for development can often be circumvented through the involvement of corrupt public officials. Forced evictions, except in the most exceptional circumstances, should be seen as an expression of policy failure i.e. the failure of a society that is either unwilling or unable to meet the basic housing needs of the poorest and most vulnerable groups of people. It further reflects the society's failure to adequately plan for the development of urban centres for the benefit of all citizens" (UNCHS/Habitat 1999b: 12).

Thus, it is quite common for governments and local authorities to use their powers to evict people who have neither money nor power to defend themselves, and to allow commercial development of the spaces which the informal settlements illegally occupy/ illegally occupied¹⁶ by the informal settlements. This involves transfer of residential tenure from the poor and vulnerable to middle or upper-income people and the development of functions that particularly benefit wealthier groups. Such cases can be found in the high-income industrial countries as well as in developing countries. In one Malaysian case, the evictions were to make room for a golf course especially for international tourism. In this and many other cases, people were sent to the outskirts of the city to release city centre space for urban development apparently undertaken for the public good that is, in reality, highly profitable private investment. For example, The municipality of Delhi forcefully evicted more than 3,00,000 people from Yamuna Pushta in Delhi and 40,000 homes demolished so far in 2004, and this types of eviction of poor people usually can be witnessed in several Indian cities.

1.7.3. c. Communal/ sectarian violence

The communal violence is also a significant cause of houselessness and peculiar feature for indian houslessness. As, India came to independence in 1947 amidst the trauma of partition that was accompanied by several violence, in which some half a million people were killed while upwards of 11 million Hindus and Muslims crossed the newly created borders as refugees. But even all this bloodshed and suffering did not settle matters; Muslims today are

¹⁶. Evictions are also often effected by private land owners.

India's largest religious minority. Among other religious groups, the Sikhs, some of whom in 1947 had sought an independent Sikhistan, are concentrated in the northern state of Punjab. Christians, Buddhists, Jains, Parsees, and Jews add further richness to India's religious diversity. The Hindus, although they share a common religious tradition, themselves divided into a myriad of sects and are socially segmented into thousands of castes and sub-castes, hierarchically ranked according to tradition and regionally organised. The geographic regions of India are linguistically and culturally distinct. To provide compensatory justice and open up opportunity, a certain percentage of admissions to colleges and universities and places in government employment were 'reserved' for so-called Scheduled Castes (untouchables) and Scheduled (aboriginal) Tribes. Similarly, to ensure adequate political representation, Scheduled Castes and Tribes were allotted reserved seats in the election constituencies. These reservations were to have ended in 1960, but they have been extended by constitutional amendment at ten-year intervals. Thus, these kinds of differences and diversities among the Indian population have been the reasons for communal and sectarian violence. There is long list of violence occurred in different geographic regions of the country among the various sections of the societies. Recently, Muzaffarnagar communal violence occurred in the state of Uttar Pradesh is an example, in which hundreds of people were killed & victimised and more than fifty thousand rendered as houseless.

1.7.4. Natural determinants

Other factors adding to the problem of houselessness are natural disasters i.e. storms, cyclones, floods, droughts, earthquakes & volcanoes, and human-caused hazards too that deprive people of their homes. Because of the increasing population density, the number of individuals hit by disasters is also increasing (Springer, 2000: 475-476). Rahman (1993, p. 75) analysed that moderate poor and non-poor are more vulnerable to become homeless in events of natural disasters. In Caracas, Venezuela, an estimated 5,74,000 people live in squatter settlements on steep slopes that are continuously affected by landslides especially after heavy rain. Between 1980 and 1989, there were 266 landslides there, causing severe loss, damage and houselessness. Urban poverty also has an increasing environmental dimension 'as poor people themselves can become a cause of ecological deterioration as they may over-exploit natural resources and neglect environmental quality in the face of more urgent needs; such as the food and basic shelter needed for another day's survival. This, in turn, can perpetuate

natural disasters and intensify their impact and increase the resulting houselessness (Tippie, 1994: 587-608). The flash floods wreaked havoc in the Kedarnath valley and other parts of Uttarakhand in June 2013, hundreds of people were killed and thousands of people rendered as houseless.

In addition, high demand for housing, poor quality of workmanship and quality control have endangered people at all levels of society as structurally unsafe buildings fail in earthquakes such as those in Turkey, Greece, Taiwan and Venezuela in 1999. Even where the locations do not increase the risk of disasters, e.g., in established inner-city tenements, the lack of maintenance arising from low housing costs and the crowded conditions forced on them by the accommodation shortage increase their vulnerability to disasters if they strike. For example, a high proportion of those killed and rendered houseless in the Mexico earthquake of 1985 were from low income, densely populated, multi-family rental housing. The earthquake and its aftershocks were estimated to make 2,50,000 houseless. In the housing market, choice is a positive function of income. The consequence is that the very poor often have no choice in housing at all¹⁷ (UNCHS/Habitat, 1994). Poor housing neighbourhoods tend to occupy sites avoided by the better off on flood plains, steep slopes, and near garbage dumps and industrial zones that often contain large quantities of toxic waste material. Tragically, in such poor environmental conditions, the occurrence of a natural hazard can lead to many people being houseless in addition to the death and destruction.

1.8. Consequences of houselessness

The increasing volume of houselessness pose significant social, economic, political, and public health problems (Link et al., 1994: 1907-1912 and Susser, Moore & Link, 1994: 546-556). However, efforts to prevent or resolve the problem of houselessness are limited by a general lack of understanding of the phenomenon and the complexity of risk factors that may make individuals vulnerable to houselessness (Baumann, 1993: 59-70). Houselessness is associated with high rates of physical health, mental health, substance abuse morbidities, etc. These problems can be exacerbated by increased exposure to unclean and unsafe living conditions, like sleeping in close proximity to infected persons in shelters, sleeping underground in dilapidated subway stations, sleeping outside in inclement weather, along with unavailable or underutilised medical attention and so on so forth.

¹⁷. Habitat Agenda: paragraph 39.

1.8.1. Economic consequences

The fluctuations in the economy over the past decades, particularly the reduction in employment opportunities, low-income housing stock, mechanisation of agricultural as well as industrial activities, etc., have resulted in dire consequences for houseless persons. The multi-dimensionality of rural poverty is so complex in developing countries that the smallest change can tip the balance between being able to cope with fluctuating fortunes and being tipped into crisis (Rahman, 1997: 116-118). However, by some unusual interaction of circumstances which can include any combination of job loss, rent inflation, personal crisis, or other unexpected events, houseless lose their home or apartment. These are the individuals and families who live on the margin of economic solvency and are unable to absorb the shock of an unexpected economic crisis (Axelson & Dail, 1988: 466).

Inequalities in access to employment, education, health care, and welfare benefits left many citizens in conditions of pronounced economic deprivation (Axelson & Dail, 1988: 468). Although houselessness is a risk factor for poor health, some individuals fare better than others. For instance, houseless individuals who perceive themselves as having greater access to their social support systems have better physical and mental health outcomes than those who do not (Hwang et al., 2009: 791-803).

1.8.2. Social consequences

Houselessness is a significant social problem that continues to exist despite repeated attempts at local, state and national levels to respond to the many and varied needs of this population. The houseless people are confronted with a multitude of dangers in their daily lives such as sexual exploitation and violent victimisation, as well as the lack of access to basic needs such as food, clothing, and shelter (Whitbeck & Simons, 1990: 108-125 and Daddis et al., 1993: 413-422). Houseless people are at high-risk for social, behavioural, physical and mental health problems (Baron, 1999: 3-26; Forst, 1994: 219-223; Hersch, 1988: 28-37; Kipke, Montgomery & MacKenzie, 1993: 289-294; Klein et al., 2000: 331-339; Molnar et al., 1998: 213-222 and Rotheram-Borus et al., 1991: 1237-1241). Being houseless for a prolonged period of time exacerbates these risks (Booth & Zhang, 1996: 75-80; Greene & Ringwalt, 1996: 1041-1058; Inciardi & Surratt, 1998: 1461-1480; Kipke et al., 1997a: 360-367; Kral et al., 1997: 109-117 and Mundy et al., 1990: 724-731).

It has been established fact that many houseless and runaway adolescents have experienced high rates of abuse (Janus et al., 1995: 433-447; Silbert & Pines, 1981: 407-411; Tyler, Hoyt & Whitbeck, 2000: 235-250 and Whitbeck & Simons, 1990: 108-125), though little is known about specific types of abuse, its intensity & duration, physical injuries and/or outcomes surrounding abuse, and disclosure of abuse. Moreover, a very little research exists on the young person's relationship to the perpetrator. The substance-abusing houseless represents a special subset of the population that may be underserved by public treatment programmes (cf. Mary et al., 2000: 395). Substance abuse can also have devastating consequences for those who struggle with severe mental illness, including symptom exacerbation, relapse and repeated hospitalisations, poor treatment compliance, disruptive behaviours, and suicide risk (Bartels et al., 1998: 277-232). The adverse cumulative effects of severe mental illness and substance abuse not only interrupt or delay normative developmental stages, but increase the risks of poverty, houselessness, incarceration and social marginalisation in adulthood houselessness (Shibusawa & Padgett, 2009: 189).

Vulnerable groups, such as houseless young people, exhibit disaffiliation through disconnection from school, academic failure, conflict with the law, or isolation from supportive jobs and pro-social relationships (Malloy, Christ & Hohloch, 1990: 25-36). The process of running away, being kicked out of parental homes or abandoned by families can be expected to induce complex and troubling emotional and behavioural responses. Status offenses such as running away or truancy may lead to more serious offenses of violent crime and theft (Lindsey et al., 2000: 115-140 and Mallett et al., 2004: 337-349).

Houseless women are more likely to have been the victims of violence as adults or children than houseless men (Brunette & Drake, 1998: 627-642; Koegel, Melamid & Burnam, 1995: 1642-1648 and Roll, Toro & Ortola, 1999: 189-198). Family preservation is a serious problem faced by parents who are living in homeless shelters or doubled up with relatives or friends. Many women with children who are houseless have substance abuse and mental health problems, and have few positive family experiences. Consequently, these women may be emotionally and socially ill-equipped to undertake adulthood responsibilities such as parenting (Zlotnick, Marjorie & Wright 1999: 1057-1058). Houseless women use social networks to cope with houselessness and to re-establish a sense of place and self-esteem. A breakdown in social networks contributed to houselessness per se among women and

intensified the deleterious effects of homelessness on their self-esteem (Rowe & Wolch, 1990: 184-204).

The homeless face problems stemming directly from homelessness, such as the consequences of trauma or criminal assault, infestations with scabies or lice, peripheral vascular disease, cellulitis and leg ulcers, frostbite, and communicable diseases such as tuberculosis and HIV (Gelberg & Linn, 1992: 601-608). Among the most frequently reported problems are dental problems, arthritis, hypertension, circulatory problems, lung disease, stomach ailments, glaucoma, asthma, anemia, diabetes, and sensory impairment (Cohen, Teresi & Holmes, 1988: S121-S128; Kutza & Keigher, 1991: 288-293 and Gelberg, Linn & Mayer-Oakes, 1990: 1220-1229). The thermoregulatory disorders and skin infections are much more common among the homeless. Crowded sleeping conditions and poor hygiene also encourage skin infestations, chronic respiratory infections, and food poisoning. Harsh environmental conditions are the causative agents of the majority of health problems the homeless experience. Homeless individuals are commonly afflicted with peripheral vascular disease and leg ulcers caused by extensive walking as well as sleeping in an upright position. Upper respiratory infections, hypertension (Wright, 1990: 49-64), malnutrition (Martin, 1991: 17-27), trauma, and parasitic infestations are common as well (Surber et al., 1988: 116-119). High mortality rates were reported in the homeless populations in many autopsy studies (Hwang, 1997: 625-628; 1998: 1454-60 and 2002: 407-410). It seems that this problem is a global one affecting big metropolitan cities of both developed and developing countries of the world. The death patterns detected in homeless population change according to the milieu of the population and it also shows variations from one region to the other (Buyuk, 2008: 318). The age-adjusted mortality rate among the homeless people was reported to be three and a half times greater than that of general population (Hibbs, 1994: 304-309).

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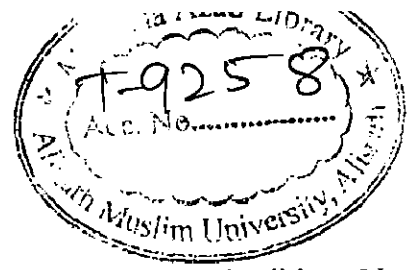
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Chapter 2

Houselessness: Review of Literature

House is a physical structure of dwelling with roof, walls and has the separate main entrance into it from the public way, which meant for human beings to live in, work in and store things in it. A person who is not living in house is termed as houseless. It refers to situations in which he lacks regular and customary access to adequate and appropriate conventional housing (the physical structures). A person who has no regular place to live and stays in an overnight emergency shelter, an abandoned building, an all-night tea stall or theatre, a railway station, outdoors, or other such places not meant to be living spaces. While, the term 'home' conveys social meanings and affects emotional experience of man. Residents use their house exterior to define identity and convey personality traits such as friendliness, privacy and independence, social status, aesthetic sense, life style, ideas, values, memories and images, desires and fears, etc. to others. There is a plethora of different concepts used to name people's relations with places: place attachment, place satisfaction, place identity, place dependence, sense of place, community attachment, sense of community, etc. Each of them grasps a somewhat different meaning, although what exactly is their *differentia specifica* is not quite clear and the concepts overlap both theoretically and methodologically. Therefore, people create emotional bonds with their place of residence. There is a common agreement among the researchers that this interest is a reaction to economically and politically driven processes of globalisation, homogenisation, migration, and integration of world territories, which endanger unique identities of places.

The problems regarding access to the housing for vulnerable and disadvantaged groups of population are still not widely discussed in India. News coverage on housing issues in the media concerns primarily the problems of high prices on housing-ownership, which can be a sign of the housing shortage. But nobody is taking efforts to find out the real or root causes of houselessness which force the people particularly from marginalised sections of the society. As, millions of men, women and children are left with no choices but to live in the open on road sides and pavements, in water pipes, under flyovers and staircases, or in places of worships, in parks, shrines, graveyards, on railway platforms, under bridges and trees, etc.

Houselessness is a complex problem which is often seen in association with socio-cultural, economic, political and geo-climatic problems, such as poverty, unemployment,

illiteracy, lack of low cost and supportive housing, domestic violence, alcohol and substance abuse, mental illness, re-settlements, etc., that need to be taken up at the local, regional, national and global level. It is a part of a large wave of interests of the researchers in uniqueness of houselessness, observed in the last few decades in the domains of sociology, humanistic geography, urban planning, demography, economics, medical science, political science and philosophy, leading to several studies in the both developed and developing countries of the world. As the proportion of urban population has been continuously larger and expanding in the developed countries and simultaneously size of urban population and rate of urbanisation also began to increase exponentially in the developing countries of the world too. This continuous growth of urban population in comparison with the limited growth of the availability of housing, poses the problem of houselessness. However, there has been an inadequacy of literature concerning houselessness in the developing countries of the world including India. Even no one is trying to ponder towards the near future grooving problem of houselessness barring very exceptions like Harsh Mander who in 2009 write an article entitles 'Living rough, surviving city streets: a study of the homeless populations in Delhi, Chennai, Patna and Madurai'.

The direct questionnaire technique for collecting data pertaining to houseless population has not still been inserted in the National Censuses of the countries across the world, except in a few, India being one of them which is just counting the number of houseless population. However, a few countries are now collecting data in separate national level documents, to measure the volume of houselessness and reveal the facts about it. At this juncture, it would not be out of place to mention certain previous popular research works with reference to the present doctoral thesis through review of literature. Literature review provides a theoretical base for the research and helps the researcher to determine the nature of the research as it provides a context for the current concerned research topic, justify it and ensures that the research has not been done before (i.e. replication study).

Therefore, a critical appraisal of brief resume of the published research work related to the houselessness has been presented and will, surely, help to understand the variety of meaning, definitions, concepts, approaches, tools and techniques adopted by the researchers of authority in the study of this problem. The works done so far on the selected theme and/or problem viz., houselessness or homelessness, consisting of forty books and more than one

hundred research papers or articles, are critically reviewed and analysed. These works are set in an alphabetical order and a strict chronological sequence is followed in the literature survey.

2.1. The books reviewed for literature survey

Solenberger (1911) in '*One Thousand Homeless Men*' focused upon the conditions under which the tramps exist, upon the causes of man's vagrancy, and upon the results of the efforts to reform him. Yet, this work is not presented as a general treatise on the subject, or as a study of the methods of dealing with vagrants in the country, or as a solution of the problems involved in their treatment. Author has only described the physical, mental, and moral condition of man during homelessness as well as its relation with the industrial accidents, its seasonal nature, purpose, and fidelity to facts. Roseman (1935) illustrated that, from 1923 to 1929, the number of lodgings furnished annually to homeless men in Chicago fluctuated around 20,000. In 1933 this figure rose to more than four million. The result was to impound 20,000 men in abandoned schools and warehouses, in the meanest of the slums, who, because of their legal residence in Chicago, had a right to claim a level of assistance. Although homeless suggest certain very concrete and immediate improvements, they make no pretense of offering a complete solution of the problem, thereby creating scope for further studies. In 1935, thousands of sheltered clients were transferred to home relief, the poorest shelters were closed, and only a small group of problem cases was retained under congregate care. Sutherland & Locke (1936) presented a brief compilation of all the qualitative information that any layman might want to know about homeless men rather than giving a statistical review of the problem. It lowers down the view of the life of outcasts in a great city during the times of depression. The authors analysed the process of shelterisation; telling the psychological effects and habit consequences resulting from life on the bum. The final chapter deals with the difficulties that arise when too many agencies and pressure groups set themselves to rehabilitate the homeless men.

Glastonbury (1971) ascertained that homelessness would vary between areas with severe housing shortage and those with an adequate supply of housing. A chapter on historical background summarises the main development in the poor and low public housing policies before 1948. The next five chapters present the material relating to 549 houseless families who temporally took accommodation in the six local authority areas between 1963 and 1969. Basic data on family size and structure, income and jobs precede a chapter in which both, the immediate as well as the underlying, causes of homelessness are analysed in detail. Next

chapter 7 focuses at the role of social services i.e. statutory and voluntary, in the survey areas in relation to the tasks of preventing homelessness, providing temporary accommodation, helping people to find accommodation, and following up of families after they leave the hostel. Berger, Berger, & Kellner, (1973) outlined the sociology of knowledge from a phenomenological perspective in Part 1, the 'Modern Consciousness'. In Part 2, 'Modernisation', there is a lively summary and interpretation of the major psychological and philosophical aspects of economic development and the problems of progress. The Part 3, 'Demodernisation', is a description of various attempts in industrial societies to solve the problem, which either take the form of resistance or the search for alternatives such as the building of non-technological and non-bureaucratic communities (Demodernisation), as exemplified by the development of youth cultures, communes, and exotic life styles. Modernisation produces the 'homeless mind'. Earlier, in societies with little technology and few bureaucracies, the mind was 'at home'. But now, the life and mind of peasants, or their entire world, is full of dread, uncertainty and anxiety, lacking in meaning and purpose, unable to find a 'homeless mind'. Thus, a homeless mind is the fate of any thoughtful, educated, reflective individual in any society. The curse would reside in man's awareness of his condition and not within technology and bureaucracy per se.

Rafferty et al., (1984) edited a book entitled '*The Shelter Worker's Handbook: A Guide for Identifying and Meeting the Health Needs of Homeless People*' that is a practical, informative guide to common health problems of the homeless, including medical and psychiatric conditions, alcoholism, tuberculosis and other communicable diseases such as scabies and lice, trauma and epilepsy. They described each condition, possible causes, treatment and outcome in epigrammatic way. Brickner et al., (1985) in the 'Health Care of Homeless People' have not only reviewed the history and current issues related to homeless people, but have also discussed the specific health problems i.e. chronic illness, trauma, and infections encountered in homeless population. They suggest that health services need to be innovative, non-bureaucratic, sensitive to the needs of the homeless, and accessible to them. Kennedy (1985) has worked on the needs of homeless women in Dublin and commitment to the marginalised Irish Society led her to allow a group of marginal women to tell their story and speak about their needs. Erickson & Wilhelm (1986) expressed that the breath of approaches is both the strength and weakness of 'Housing the Houseless'. The articles of the book focus on the underlying causes of homelessness, employment programmes for the

unemployed, and the demise of affordable housing. The need for multi-tiered approaches and programmes, incorporating stabilisation, transition, and alternative long-term housing, must be clearly established.

White et al., (1987) focused that homelessness involves socio-economic stratification, marginalisation & alienation, distribution of scarce resources, communal solidarity, and public-private sector responsibilities. In the first chapter, the book offers a good review of the historical context of homelessness in the United States, followed by a discussion concerned with the questions of how to define and count the homeless. Subsequent chapters cover several special groups, including veterans' women, families with children, and the rural homeless. The final chapter raises the important question of whether homelessness is a housing problem but it fails to articulate the issue beyond its initial contours. The book concludes with two chapters briefly concerned with homelessness in less developed countries.

Friedricks (1988) pointed out that affordable housing and homelessness are interrelated problems. The new homelessness is mainly the result of structural economic changes and a shortage of affordable housing. The book is organised into three major sections. The first one relates to general issues of affordability of housing, the second section focuses on the problem of affordable housing in Sweden, Czechoslovakia, West Germany, and Netherland and the third section deals with issues on homelessness in United Kingdom, France, and the United States. The new homelessness grows out of economic and labour market changes and a lack of affordable housing on an increasingly large scale. The book deals with how to provide housing for low-income populations. Thorman (1988) provided a comprehensive well-organised overview of different aspects of homelessness. The sections dealing with the causes of homelessness focus on shortages of cheap housing due to loss of units through demolition, conversion, gentrification, decreased subsidised housing and increased rents. The inadequacies of the community mental health services, increased poverty, job displacement and greater family abuse & disorganisation; and consequences of homelessness in terms of increased health problems, mental disorders, harassment and stigmatisation. The problems of homeless children include extreme insecurity, embarrassment in school, inability to learn, withdrawal, aggressive behaviour and malnutrition. He favours transition between counseling-housing and permanent housing.

Rossi (1989) in his book *'Down and out in America: The Origins of Homelessness'* analysed impacts of the socio-economic conditions on vulnerable groups in 1950s and 60s.

These vulnerable groups are disabled by minority status, chronic mental illness, physical illness, or substance abuse, etc. All the very poor suffer, but it is the most vulnerable who fall to the very bottom i.e. homelessness. The social welfare system also fails to help families support their dependent adult members. Many of the homeless were pushed out or thrown away by their families when they become mature; many of the new homeless are products of a similar process too. Rossi suggested remedial measures like, compensating for the failure of housing market by fostering the retention and enlargement of urban low-income housing stock; reversing the policy that has put personal choice above institutionalisation for those so severely disabled; enlarging our conception of disability to include conditions not purely physical in character and, in particular, recognising that chronic mental illness and chronic substance abuse are often profound disabilities; restoring the real value of welfare payments to the purchasing power they had in the late 1960s; and extending the coverage of welfare benefits to include long-term unemployed, unattached persons. Burt & Cohen (1989a) estimated the number of homeless population, described their characteristics and recommended solutions for them, on the basis of data, collected from the urban institutes in 1987 National Survey. Problems faced by homeless people are poor physical and mental health, low economic status, and alcohol & chemical abuse, etc.

Cohen & Sokolovsky (1989) based '*Old Men of the Bowery: Strategies of Survival among the Homeless*' on two sets of data, the first one collected through a questionnaire, administered to 231 elderly skid row men, and the second set collected through participant observation and intensive interviewing. First two chapters provide a framework for the study by sketching a history of homelessness and an analysis of the pathways to skid row. The chapter three provides serviceable history of homelessness, from the England in the middle Ages to the United States today. It focuses on structural and ideological aspects of homelessness, suggesting that the causes of homelessness are rooted in the political and economic realms. The chapter 6 focuses on social support among elderly Bowery men, and the final chapter focuses on strategies for intervention. Hoch & Slayton (1989) concluded that new homelessness of the 1980s has its roots in the gradual destruction of single room occupancy (SRO) housing. On the basis of interviews with a sample of Chicago SRO dwellers, they argued that it offers convenience and security at an affordable price. They put blame for the homelessness on the external forces over which most of us have little control. Authors' proposal for halting the spread of homelessness emphasises provision of housing rather than

wholesale economic restructuring. Wright (1989) projected the size of homeless people and described the problems, causes and solutions for their homelessness on the basis of data collected from the National Health Care for Homeless Programme. He argued that the homeless people are not really bad, not the drunk, the addicted, and just plainly shiftless but rather those who are unable to work and are not homeless by choice. He advocated that homelessness is a part of the larger picture of poverty, because the vast majority of the homeless are the describing victims of social changes.

Coates' (1990) book, *'A Street is not a Home: Solving America's Homeless Dilemma'*, is divided into four sections on planning, homeless subpopulations, major solutions, and empowerment. If homelessness is to be solved, several actions must be taken at the community as well as at the state level. First, officials should be made aware that the homeless population is actually comprised of diverse subpopulation, including women, veterans, alcoholics, teenagers, and the elderly. Second, communities must develop job training programmes for the able-bodied homeless so that they return into main stream society. Third, local governments should begin building low-income housing. Fourth, model homeless shelters should be established to treat individuals with care and sensitivity. Fifth, state and local governments must make a concerted effort to help the deinstitutionalised mentally ill. Vander (1992) described that voices and stories of homeless are painful: having to ask for change because they are hungry, cannot be hired, being weaker trying to escape from a migrant labour camp, being robbed of food stamps, running away from home so they would not get sexually abused anymore and finding out that the only way to live on the street is through prostitution. Street lives will sensitise the kneaders to the human dimensions of extreme poverty in the United States. White (1992) argued that the number of homeless persons is far smaller than that claimed by social activists. Such individuals are primarily mentally ill, alcoholics, or drug users; homeless families are primarily a result of a black underclass where 'babies have babies'. He criticises a wide variety of people, ideologies, government policies, and social service programmes for creating this situation. The political leaders do not pass funds for social service programmes because these programmes do not work. The expansion of individual rights and government interference has weakened institutions of family, community and religion. The final chapter lays out a series of principles ranging from promoting the restoration of traditional institutions to a principle outlawing irresponsible behaviour.

Snow & Anderson (1993) made analysis of subcultures of unattached homeless street adults living on the streets of Austin, survival strategies and routines of the homeless, how these routines vary among them, and the social, cultural and political forces that shape them. The regular work is largely unavailable to homeless, day labour is usually short-term, irregular, low paying and demeaning, and neither public assistance nor familial hand out go very far; most came to rely on compensatory non-wage labour subsistence strategies. Such shadow work includes the trade of clothes & food items; the sale of junk & personal possessions; drugs, sex & blood plasma; scavenging for foodstuffs, clothing & redeemable cars; panhandling & theft. In this way, life comes on orientation to future time in which the homeless have little confidence that their actions today will yield a better tomorrow for them (p. 170). Wagner (1993) examined the perspective of a loosely organised group of people who hang out around checkerboard square in North City in New England. Many of their concerns revolve around the limits of the work ethic, of the family ethic, and of state intervention. Wagner precisely details four subcultures of street people in North City i.e. 'the Street Drunks' a large number of youth including younger street kids, the older 'Young Drunks'; the 'Social Club' composed of the mentally ill who often associate with mental health support groups; and the 'Politics' a group of homeless and formerly homeless people who remain engaged in research advocacy and services to the homeless community. Author asks that how do people at the bottom of the society live and what are their viewpoints about poverty, work, the family and social institutions (p. 3)?

Glasser (1994) expressed that there is a numbing sameness in the heterogeneity of the estimated one billion people who live under conditions of inadequate shelter or are literally homeless. Men, women and children in Moscow, Tokyo and Sao Paulo are marginalised, risk their health and lives, and rely on one another for survival. Each chapter reviews several stop gap solutions to homelessness and contains several astute observations such as the visibility of homeless women, who are often cast as witches (pp. 39-40). Nevertheless, much of the discussion merely skins the surface of the material and does not delve into the more tangled conceptual issues involved. Jencks (1994), in the first section of *'The Homeless'* provided a new perspective on the number of people made homeless during 1980s. In the second section, he investigated four promising explanations for the growth in number of people on streets. The first chapter concerns the future of the deinstitutionalisation process and restrictions on involuntary commitment. Second cause of homelessness is the advent of crack cocaine during

the mid-1980s. Third cause of homelessness is the change in both employment and marriage rates. Fourth exploration concerns the destruction of skid row zones in cities across the country. Subsequent section deals with changes in the housing market. Final section of the book deals with solutions. Yet the book is disappointing, primarily for two reasons. First, it is simply not possible to draw conclusions about trends in homelessness at the national level without first considering the substantial regional, rural-urban, and inter-urban variations that exist. A second problem concerns the fact that readers are never really provided with an overview of the processes which drive homelessness.

Timmer, Eitzer, & Talley, (1994) developed an extended case method approach to the macro level causes of homelessness in order to combine a structured approach to homelessness with an ethnographic attentiveness to the concrete experience of being homeless. They said that homelessness is not a result of faulty people but of a culture of poverty among homeless people. The only problem with people living on the streets or in shelters is that they are poor. Loveland's (1995) '*Housing Homeless Persons: Administrative Law and the Administrative Process*' is in three parts. The first part focuses on the broader contexts of the Act's implementation, seeking out the context of rights to housing, the pre-history of the homelessness legislation and, finally, the passage of the Bill through parliament. The second part discusses three local authority homeless persons' units and analyses their response through their policy as well as individual case studies on the key concepts of the Act viz., homelessness, priority need, and intentionality and local connection. The third part provides a challenging but convincing analysis of government policy since 1977.

Dehavenon (1996) set out the agenda to root out the causes of poverty while documenting in qualitative and quantitative terms, both the 'geographic' and 'experimental' varieties of U.S. homelessness. In fact, rural homelessness is a neglected area of study despite the growing number of rural unemployed and underemployed, poor and homeless, which results primarily from manufacturing decline in rural areas rather than simply from agriculture which itself is a victim of the global economy. Passaro (1996) examined the role of dominant gender and family ideologies to explain the persistence of homelessness for some people and not for others in New York City. Black single men are much more likely to remain homeless than women. Since women are ideologically constructed as dependent, vulnerable, and frightened homeless, women are more likely to find home than homeless men, viewed at once as hypermasculinised. Therefore, she concluded that the process of remaining homeless is a

cultural expression of deeply entrenched beliefs about the relative worth of different genders and races of people (p. 29), and that it is time to move to a class-based system of readdressing inequality. Shane (1996) discussed, in the first part of book *'What about America's Homeless Children?'* the extent of the problem and identifies four groups of homeless children namely, familial, unaccompanied, street youth, and babies. He viewed at them in the context of the interactional and reciprocal relationships that people and families have within families, within their communities, and within society and the world i.e. at micro, meso and macro environment levels. But the specific attention is given to the social, educational, and health (physical as well as mental) related needs and issues of homeless children. In part two, Shane provided a glimpse of life of the homeless children and their families on the streets. In the next two parts, he presented an overview of the responses of governmental and private agencies that have been made to date. Vissing (1996) examined homeless who are even more invisible than usual that is the ones in small towns and rural areas in America. The causes of poverty are almost the same in city and countryside i.e. economic dislocation, rising divorce rates, replacement, and relative increase in cost of living, especially that of housing and food. The health of the homeless is worse by several factors than that of the housed. The most heartbreaking conditions are among the children, whose physical ailments, from earaches to hypertension; occur anywhere from double to ten times more frequently than with their more affluent neighbours.

De'Ollos (1997) offers a preliminary account of a variety of families who are in housing distress and attempts to explain what compels such families to seek public shelter, how they live in these shelters? How they view themselves? and how the availability of familial support affects this process? Five intriguing 'parental shelterisation process stages are introduced in it viz. compliance, anger, hope, frustration and homelessness. Desjarlais (1997) in his book, *'Shelter Blues: Shanty and Selfhood among the Homeless'*, focused on critical phenomenology of various domains of struggle, consciousness, conversation, and temporality among the residents of a Boston shelter on the basis of collected data on homeless and mentally ill residents through a field work of two years. Dordick (1997) contributed to the sociological understanding of homelessness by examining improvisation among the denizens of four different riches in Manhattan's homeless topography in which homeless develop situationally specific social relationship that facilitates their survival. She frankly discussed her frustrations,

uncertainties and failures in field reach and produced a sympathetic and unromantic account of social improvisation among the homeless.

Rowe (1999), by interviewing 50 homeless individuals and 15 outreach workers, conceptualised the movement from homelessness to being housed as one that involves both the literal and mainstream society. Rowe's work has methodological limitations. His sample of both homeless individuals and outreach workers is quite small. When workers and homeless individuals meet in boarder encounters, both parties are affected, because the worker is forced to give up some of his professional identity, which may be disorienting. Fitzpatrick (2000), in *'Young Homeless People'*, presented the findings of a qualitative research study of the lives of homeless young people in Glasgow, Scotland. She examined the role of structural factors in youth homelessness i.e., poverty and unemployment and the role of psychological factors such as emotional impact of family disruption. This book provides an important insight into both hidden homelessness, as experienced by those staying temporarily with friends on a housing state and official homelessness, in terms of young people living in hostels or sleeping rough in the city centre.

Cloke, Milbourne & Widdowfield, (2002) raised the question, why homelessness is hyper-visible in cities but invisible in rural places? The invisibility of rural homelessness falls into definitional disagreements and the meaning of home itself. A second reason for the invisibility of the rural homeless has to do with every day rural culture, particularly the blind spots of its more idyllic construction. As middle class commuters gentrify the shires, they deplete the supply of available housing for less affluent classes by raising land prices and taxes. Changes in rural employment for long-term residents depress incomes and cash resources. In spite of being an acute social problem, present rural homelessness resembles leprosy and mental illness of the past. Kusmer (2002) looks at the myriad aspects of homelessness and finds it to be a complex phenomenon not divorced from the uncertainties of working class life. The sense that 'anyone could lose everything overnight' was the harsh reality of industrial America (p. 86). The dual character of those who seemed not to have a permanent home: the down and out, a fairly stable group of men and some women, who remained rooted in the cities; and the tramps & hoboes, a more volatile group, almost all of them men, who lived life on the road. Americans have rarely been of one mind about homelessness and the image of the homeless man, Kusmer writes, 'served many functions for many audiences' (p. 12). The culture of the road comes to life via hobo music, fiction, a

'tramp censuses of the 1890s, and even tramp memoirs. Merely a 'troublesome nuisance between 1945 and 1975,' homelessness has emerged as a 'major social problem in recent decades' (p. 237). He has avoided confronting the main dilemma of the present: why, in spite of a multitude of programmes in different parts of the country, the number of homeless has again begun to rise. Tackling the economic situation of low wagedworkers, housing costs, racial issues, and 'welfare reform', would have added to the value of this engaging and useful book.

Williams (2003) added to the extensive literature concerning homelessness, poverty, domestic violence, and gender issues by discussing how the staff at social service agencies and the shelter industry in general, attempt to label and segregate homeless and battered women into discrete categories and different shelter, where they are treated quite differently. Two-third homeless were unwilling to see themselves as homeless. Homeless women in Phoenix argued that they are not lazy, mentally ill, drug addicted, or different from housed people. Borchard (2005) presented affecting drama of desperation and discouragement, bizarrely unfolding the shadow of billion-dollar Los Vegas Casino megaplexes, gargantuan glass reproductions of Egyptian pyramids, and garishly upscale retail lifestyle destination that light up the desert night. The world on the street only seems to lose momentum when he studiously ignores the inductive possibilities in his data and slavishly tries to work his material into safe debates and categories created by the homeless research tradition, resulting in a real separation between his data and theory. Hasegawa (2006) expressed that homeless population in Japan have frequently been represented by the plight of poor families, especially after the displacements. However, contemporary homelessness is concentrated around the plight of day labourers losing access to day markets, most often single men who, given the changing nature of the economy, have fewer and fewer opportunities for work. Author examined the struggles over the occupied physical spaces in a large retail centre to the east of Tokyo, a place where they could secure small jobs and relief from weather overhead.

2.2. The research papers and/or articles reviewed for literature survey

Bahr (1969) linked family stability and size with alcoholism and skid-row men. Men from large families and broken homes have been more prone to skid-row and alcoholism, but neither the broken home nor the large family size is, in itself, a significant cause of the homelessness and excessive drinking. So, obvious evidence for an association between parental homes has been based on a misperception of what constituted high rates of family instability. Stoner (1983) focused on the growing number of women among the homeless,

their special needs, and the harsher conditions of life for homeless women. Stoner suggested a comprehensive three-tiered service system to address the needs of the homeless population in general and homeless women in particular, and recommends several courses for political and social action to address the systematic causes of homelessness. Kearns (1984), through an empirical study, examined that homelessness occurred due to personal crises as poor health, addiction to alcoholism, economic deprivation and psychiatric disturbances. The inequitable economic, social and political system usually entraps them in this deprived state.

Frazier (1985) assessed the role of the National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH) in responding to the needs of homeless mentally ill people. Some of the factors that lead to homelessness, such as economic deprivations, a dearth of service systems and radical changes in the composition of families, are felt particularly by many persons who are mentally ill, in the absence of family members or supportive friends. People with schizophrenia are helpless before the facts of the disease, ignorance, etc. Richard (1985) said that homelessness is paid attention to due to an increase in the number of women, children, young people, minorities and mentally ill persons who wander in the streets and sleep on heating grates or in other public places. He highlighted the trends in poverty for homeless population, the factors affecting these trends and the federal programmes providing services to the homeless. Rossi et al., (1987) developed a scientific and acceptable method for estimating the composition and size of homeless people. The samples of homeless population in Chicago consist of unaffiliated persons living in extreme poverty, with high level of physical and mental disability. Homelessness is examined as a manifestation of extreme poverty among people without families and the declining stocks of inexpensive dwelling units in housing markets, suitable for single persons.

Leland & Paula (1988) examined the changing character of homelessness and recommendations for a public policy response. Besides a certain number of Americans who have always been roamers, members of a wandering breed called hobo, tramp, king of the road, cowboy, frontiersman and bum, there is a growing population of homeless individuals and families who are neither among the mentally ill nor wanderers, and who may even be employed. This new form of homeless people has shocked the researchers. Jagannathan & Halder (1988) analysed occupational patterns and mobility of the pavement dwellers in Calcutta, and found that contacts, kinship ties, caste and communal factors can ease access to earning opportunities. Their study reveals a steady inflow of the rural poor from eastern India

their destinations are well defined for work. Shop assistants, daily casual labourers, street dlers and mendicants do earn income levels higher than they used to have in village and y are able to remit. Shanks (1988) assessed the morbidity pattern of the homeless ulation in Manchester. A principal diagnosis was recorded for each patient consulted while vering the primary health care to homeless. The diagnoses were grouped and compared i expected levels in the general population. High consultation rates in some groups were nced by low consultation rates in other groups.

Burt & Cohen (1989b) investigated demographic characteristics, length of current spells omelessness & joblessness, income & income sources, history of personal problems, erns of utilisation of soup kitchens & shelters and diet adequacy. The results exhibit that vidual homeless women, homeless women with children and homeless men differ ificantly in terms of too many variables with implications for both the probable causes of ielessness as well as the preventive and ameliorative efforts. First & Toomey (1989) ussed the developmental policies and delivered services for homeless men. Study reveals one-quarter homeless men are severely disabled; one-third needs a moderate range of ices while remainder is displaced from the work force but they are capable of living pendently. Fox & Roth (1989) studied that the rise in the number of homeless families is to the decrease in the amount of affordable housing and a simultaneous increase in the ber of families living in poverty and its attendant social problems. Consequently, ieless children experience severe disruptions in family life that can have devastating and sibly permanent effects on them. Lee (1989) through the data of urban homeless in hville, Tennessee, found out that number of homeless population is not increasing rapidly. lings also contract expectations regarding the rise of new homeless groups and show two s of spatial redistribution that is from indoor to outdoor and from care to peripheral tions.

Piliavin et al., (1989) collected samples of 339 homeless individuals to know the nsity of hospitalisation between members who used health clinics services and who did

Mentally ill members were not different from the mentally ill sample people in the ieless population, particularly with respect to their use of health clinics. Rossi & Wright 39) applied the new approach to examine the urban homeless by describing social, ionic and demographic features in Chicago. Literal homelessness is basically a ifestation of extreme poverty in a housing market that has an inadequate supply of very

low cost housing to offer to single-person households. The incidence of homelessness occurs very profoundly on persons who are un-affiliated with household and upon those who have been extremely poor for long period of time. Snow et al., (1989) examined the relationship between homelessness and criminality and found that majority of offenses for which they are arrested are public intoxication, followed by theft, shoplifting, violation of city ordinances, and burglary.

Hodricki (1990) explored that homeless population is changing in terms of age, sex, race, income status, educational level, and family composition. Economic, social and political factors are identified as increasing risks of becoming houseless and remedial measures that are to be adopted to meet the needs of the houseless population are related to housing, employment, health insurance, mental & physical health care, etc. Malloy et al., (1990) described the characteristics and health status of homeless population in a south-eastern city of Carolina, U.S.A. The homeless population is representative of a specific disadvantaged group, seriously at risk for a myriad of physical and mental problems. Rowe & Wolch (1990) examined social networks operating within specific time-space fabric. The concept of time-space discontinuity is offered as a way to conceptualise the impacts of homelessness on social network formation, daily paths, life paths, personal identity and self-esteem. The characteristics of social networks and daily time-space paths appear to have affected the identities and self-esteem of the homeless women.

George et al., (1991) determined the number of single homeless people in Sheffield and examined their demography, social and medical details. The 340 single homeless people were identified, most of them being of young age. The prevalence of psychiatric illness was high and overall health status was poor in the homeless population. Gory et al., (1991) suggested that the extreme poverty and powerlessness of homeless individuals could be traced to a lack of social ties. Their 26 item scale measures affiliation; subscales assess expressive ties, instrumental supports, and acquaintances. Personal efficacy outcomes studied are depressives symptoms, anomie, mastery, physical and mental health, service knowledge, environmental satisfaction, and monthly income. Evidence suggests that many homeless persons have a network of confidants, friends, relatives, and acquaintances. Martell (1991) analysed that homelessness is associated with violent criminal behaviour but not all mentally disordered homeless people are violent. The mentally ill homeless may have a significantly higher rate of

violent criminal behaviour and there exist a specific class of individuals among homeless who are at risk for violence and may pose a threat to public safety.

Berlin & McAlliston (1992) defined homeless people who were transient poors, socially isolated and living in the cheap hotels & flophouses on skid row. They become homeless because the stock of affordable rental housing, cheap single room occupancy hotels, cage hotels and flophouses decreased. High cost of housing, limited urban job opportunities, low income, state mental hospitals, etc. caused many poor people to end up on the streets. Culhane (1992) assessed the impact of efforts on providers and consumers of homeless services in Philadelphia. The efforts have been comprised by an inability to control the demand for shelter, particularly the rate of new admissions and by the extent of need for housing assistance among homeless and near-homeless people. Lee et al., (1992) said that dominant ideology and public arenas theories have different hypotheses regarding the incidence and antecedents of public beliefs about the causes of homelessness. Causal beliefs in turn affect policy attitudes: respondents who consider homelessness a structural problem are more likely to favour government action than those believing in individualistic causes. While mixed, the results as a whole provide somewhat greater support for the public arenas perspective. Master (1992) concerned that homeless children may have experienced many chronic adversities and traumatic events. More immediately, children may have gone hungry and lost friends, possessions, and the security of familiar places and people at home, at school, or in the neighborhood. They had two to four times the rates of respiratory infections, skin problems, nutritional deficiencies, gastrointestinal disorders, and chronic illness. Homeless children had significantly more behavioural and emotional problems than the general population, particularly for antisocial problems. Shlay & Rossi (1992) computed the averages of sixty local and national empirical studies conducted from 1981-1988 and then proposed a working definition of homelessness as the condition of those people who are without a place of residence. The study has focused mainly on analysing the age, sex, family status, race, ethnicity, economic & labour market status and personal vulnerabilities of homeless persons.

Honig & Filer (1993) found that homelessness is the outcome of imbalance between the cost of available housing and a household's income. Such an imbalance may occur when housing markets are tight relative to labour markets and housing costs are high relative to earnings. Piliavin et al., (1993) build a model of career length based on four conceptual frameworks: institutional disaffiliation, psychological dysfunction, human capital deficit, and

cultural identification. They found that conditioned on age, people who have less consistent work histories, experienced childhood foster care, and currently express less discomfort with life on the streets have longer homeless career. The people who experienced pre-homeless psychiatric hospitalisation had relatively shorter homeless careers, and people who suffered from severe symptoms of alcoholism had homeless careers no different in average length from those of other sample members.

Anderson & Kobblinskey (1995) conducted a study on a group of homeless families, a newly emerged fastest growing segment of the homeless population. Many of them become houseless because of inadequacy of jobs, illness and change in personal relationship such as divorce, decantation, or loss of housing due to fire or flood, etc. Argeriou et al., (1995) described the composition, size and needs of homeless, the duration of homelessness and the dwelling place as the elements of an operational definition of homelessness. The homelessness can be quantified and differentiated along meaningful dimensions, such as severity that have ramification for programming and policy formulation. Lawrence (1995) expressed that the homeless are positioned in social space in ways, which seriously challenge the production of such a space, not least of all by violating its representations of the self-sufficiently productive, propertied and privately defined individuality, but agriculture based state keep the rural homeless population well hidden. Moneyham & Connor (1995) proposed the meaning of homelessness from the perspective of previously homeless substance abusers. The road to homelessness is comprised of painful background experiences, negative self-concept, ineffective coping skills and a sense of hopelessness. The road out of homelessness describes the recovery process and includes turning points, experiences of caring relationships and a new way of viewing the world. Pamela et al., (1995) identified the health needs and life situations of the homeless population in Columbia, South Carolina, by examining the demographic, social, and physical and mental health characteristics of homelessness. Women have comprised as much as one-third of the homeless population. Single mothers with children are reported to be the fastest growing segment of the homeless population. The most common reasons cited for homelessness were some combination of family problems, loss of job, substance abuse or health problems. Weinreb & Rossi (1995) examined general characteristics, services offered and common practices of 646 family shelters. Study revealed that the system of family shelters is a group of loosely corrected programmes, organised primarily by private sponsors and that shelter practices often exclude the neediest families.

Williams (1995) framed the meaning and practice of fieldwork in a situation in which the primary goal is not to create an ethnographic understanding of the other but to gather information in a morally conscientious manner towards a particular category of reasons with whom the participant's observer shares the identity fellow citizen. Lewit & Baker (1996) reviewed the different definitions of homelessness and most common methods used to estimate the size of the homeless population. Reliable information about the size, distribution, and composition of the homeless population is essential for effective planning of the housing, jobs and public support. However, getting reliable data has proven to be extraordinarily difficult and controversial and can be used as an excuse for not meeting their problems. Susser (1996) analysed the nourishing factors of poverty and homelessness in the United States. The poverty and homelessness are structured and analysed in terms of economy, labour, space, time, gender, race, political mobilisation, resistance, etc. The violence, conflict, exploitation, housing shortages, etc. are generated by lowering the wages and reducing the leisure time. A leading and rising cause of injury and death for women was violence from their male partners. The issues of reflexivity and incorporation of voices, the hierarchies of otherness which show inequality of rich & poor and the marginalisation of poors who have become invisible, being excluded from the public view.

Dupont (1997) examined the spatial patterns of residence and work of the population with special reference to the location strategies of the houseless people in old Delhi. There is extremely high population density due to notorious concentration of administrative, commercial and manufacturing enterprises, which have caused a huge influx of male migrants, mostly unskilled, hailing from rural areas. One-third of them have carried on more than one occupation and majority of them is engaged in transport activities and as waiters, cooks and workers in related services. The condition of houselessness should not be visualised only as the consequence of a process of exclusion from access to a dwelling, but a strategy adopted by migrant workers or labourers to maximise remittances to their families in the villages by cutting down their housing and transport expenses. They therefore give priority to a location near workplace or near the labour market and on the other hand, proximity between the sleeping place and the source of employment opportunities often increases their probability of getting daily work. Gelberg & Seicke (1997) reviewed that homeless men who consent to be interviewed are no more likely to be consciously untruthful in replying to interviewer's questions than members of most other disadvantaged groups. The homeless are fairly accurate

reporters. However, they may not accurately report complex information on socially undesirable aspects. Thus, the questions should be simplified to one task and the respondents should be allowed to answer questions at their own pace. Rollinson (1998) identified two types of shelters i.e. the street and the transitional housing, and at both of these, the amount of spatial activity was limited to the immediate environment, which offered little opportunity to secure low-income housing, and streets, which were unwelcome and potentially hazardous. The street shelters claimed to do no more than providing the most basic of necessities viz., nutrition and shelter. However, the men served at the mission needed more than a meal and a bed; they often require long-term treatment for alcohol or drug abuse and mental illness. The transitional shelters attempt to prepare the homeless for a return to main-stream.

Bogard, et al., (1999) verified that mental health problems are a part of the causal nexus of family homelessness and simultaneously delivered mental health services to homeless mothers in an indiscriminate manner; but shelter programmes encourage the isolation of their residents from social networks. While mental health services had, little impact on depression levels among homeless mothers and isolation from social networks did increase depression among them. De'Rosa et al., (1999) described the service utilisation patterns of homeless and runaway youth in a service-rich area of Los Angeles, California by identifying the demographic and other correlations of utilisation; and contextualising the findings with qualitative data. Nunez & Fox (1999) focused on typical homeless families to identify the common trends in their income, housing welfare, educational & employment histories across the regions; and to set a base for future longitudinal analysis of these trends as they are influenced by changing economic forces and social policy measures. The causes of homelessness comprise a complex web of issues and problems that vary widely from community to community. However, homeless families lag behind the general population in education and income levels. Smith (1999) observed that homelessness has become particularly prevalent among young people and increasingly visible through hundreds of young people sleeping rough in Central London. Street sleeping is most common among young white men and not among young white women or young women and men of colour. In order to combat homelessness and social exclusion among all groups of young people, a wider definition of homelessness is required, promoting long-term social housing initiatives.

Springer (2000) attempted to define and classify the homeless population and the causes of homelessness on a global level '*Homelessness: A Proposal for a Global Definition and*

Classification'. She made an analysis of the definitions of homelessness of the different countries firstly and changed the notion of 'homelessness' to 'houselessness'. Then, the houseless persons are defined as those sleeping rough or using public or private shelters which is the part of care population. In order to understand the causes of houselessness in a better way, the notion of inadequate shelter at regional level should be considered. The persons living in inadequate shelter situations including the concealed houselessness (living with relative or friend), the risk of houselessness (eviction, release from an institution), and sub-standard housing are the other group of houseless population, but it will have to be studied at regional level in order to confirm to the regional housing standards. Wright (2000) investigated the causes & solutions of homelessness and asserted that the combination of rapid integration & monopolisation of transitional corporation and the application of neoliberal economic policies of deregulation and privatisation & imposed financial austerity measures privileges the finance capital and accelerates the accumulation of capital at the expense of working families and the poor, locally, nationally, and internationally. These privileges, in turn, generate international, national and local extremes of social inequalities, putting populations at risk of losing their shelter. In fact, ending the bitter legacy of homelessness will require substantial changes in the strategies of capital accumulation, not just simple reform.

Bridgman (2001) assessed Eva's Phoenix: A Pilot Project designed to provide housing and employment training opportunities for homeless youth in Toronto, Canada. Homeless youth have multiple and intersecting needs namely housing, employment, life skills, medical issues, etc. Homeless youth faces and offers insights for understanding what types of services and interventions can potentially help them. Cloke, Milbourne & Widdowfield (2001a) explained a number of ways in which rural homelessness is less visible than its well-published urban counterpart, relating to the morphology of rural areas, social-cultural constructs of idyll. They report a number of stents of the invisibility of rural homelessness and points to very significant interconnections between housing and homelessness discourses in the local rural policy process. Cloke, Milbourne & Widdowfield (2001b) also positioned central homelessness policy within a broader context of welfare restructuring in the UK, and considered important connections between central and local processes of welfare & housing provision. Authors focused on the local spaces of welfare provision and explored sets of central local policy entanglements bound up with the provision of housing support in two rural

counties in England. La Gory, Fitzpatrick & Ritchey (2001) cited the differences in the quality of life among the homeless by focusing on the impact of life chances and social choices on aspects of the quality of life. With the exception of depressive symptoms, life chances appear to play a more important role in quality of life differences than life choices. The specific life chance and choice factors influencing aspects of the quality of life vary with each separate well-being outcome. Glomn & John (2002) developed a simple two-period model in which homelessness arises endogenously; there is a non-convexity in the housing market, so some agents optimally choose not to consume housing. Homelessness leads to lower labour productivity in the future. Thus, housing is a good investment but borrowing constraints may prevent agents from being able to finance it, and the borrowing constraints and the productivity loss combinedly can generate a homelessness trap.

Cloke, Milbourne & Widdowfield (2003) explored the interconnected issues of mobility, power and meaning in the context of rural homelessness and found that rural homeless people move to cities, thereby transposing homelessness into an urban problem; and that mobility is deeply implicated in the mapping of moral codes in rural areas. They discussed four types of movement: local homeless people moving out of rural areas; local homeless people moving within rural areas; homeless incomes moving to rural areas; and transient homeless people moving through rural areas. Dekel et al., (2003) interviewed, through telephone, the youngsters, their parents, and social workers in the community and found out that a majority of the youngsters either had returned to their family homes, or had been placed out of home. Their residential stability was low and post-shelter place of residence was related to the length of stay at the shelter, amount of contact with their family and manner of departure. Meth (2003) focused on domestic violence, where it happens to take place, and provides significant insight into debates about the meaning of home. The discussions of domestic violence could make more use of feminist geographers and development theorists' analysis of the home. The paper focuses on three assumptions about the home; namely, the home as a formal material space, the home as private and the domicile as home. He concluded for a more nuanced understanding of home.

Brooks et al., (2004) conducted face-to-face structured interviews with staff at homeless youth agencies in Los Angeles County regarding organisational and staff characteristics, issues affecting youth, types of available services, gaps in services and barriers to service delivery. Geographic barriers, which are providing a comprehensive and coordinated system

of care, can affect youth's pathways out of homelessness. Dupont (2004) focused on the pattern of social-spatial differentiation and segmentation of the metropolitan area of Delhi. Indian caste system is traditionally associated with strong social and spatial segregation. She analysed the factors shaping the urban landscape and introduced spatial discontinuity from physical barriers to the different historical periods and the impact of town planning and the residential pattern of different segments of the urban population in order to detect whether certain economic and socio-cultural attributes generate a pattern of segregation. The residential practices developed by different socio-economic groups, their strategies regarding the occupation of the geographical & economic space and their tendency to residential clustering leads to a pattern of social segregation at the level of neighborhood.

Early (2005) developed a model that captures the timing of events that lead to street homelessness. The first outcome is whether the household is in housing or is homeless. Conditional on being homeless, the second outcome is whether the household enters the shelter system. The probability of being homeless is higher for households with children, when the head has problems with alcohol or illicit drugs in areas where the rent needed to occupy even the lowest level of housing available is high and for households with younger heads. Conditional on being homeless, non-white households with children were substantially less likely to be living on the streets. Hyde (2005) conducted interview with 50 homeless youth in Los Angeles to explore why young people leave home and become homeless. In professional discourses, he found that homeless young people are often portrayed as victims of physical abuse and emotional neglect. Tipple & Speak (2005) explored the extent and characteristics of homelessness in developing countries with an assessment of the viability of and need for a globally acceptable definition of homelessness. The current theoretical concepts of home and existing typologies on homelessness to present an empirical context as it becomes significantly evident that a single definition may be inappropriate and a range of definitions may be needed to underpin interventions and policy development.

Biswas-Diener & Diener (2006) interviewed 186 homeless people in Calcutta, California, and a tent camp in Portland (Oregon) about life satisfaction, satisfaction with various life domains, and their experience of positive and negative emotions. The average rate of life satisfaction was relatively negative for both Americans but positive for the Calcutta's pavement dwellers. Satisfaction with social domains appears to be the area of largest variation among the groups. Fiedler et al., (2006) explained the geographies of immigrants at risk of

homelessness to discern as to where the hidden homelessness might be occurring. Spatial concentrations of recent immigrants at-risk of homelessness are found in inner suburban locations; in these at-risk areas, the vast majority of immigrants are recent arrivals; and recent immigrants are disproportionately excluded from at-risk estimates because they are significantly over represented among households that have shelter costs that exceed their incomes.

Anderson (2007) reviewed longstanding homelessness policy and legislation of A Homelessness Task Force in Scotland. He then examined the legislative and other policy instruments adopted to ensure implementation prior to assessing progress and the mechanisms in place to monitor and evaluate outcomes. Cloke, Johnsen & May (2007) tried to uncover some of the problems and characteristics of rural homelessness by suggesting two significant dynamics. First, rural places reflect particular local qualities, which contextualise both the circumstances of homelessness and the provision of services in response to those circumstances. Secondly, the contemporary governance of homelessness unfolds rather unevenly in different rural areas, producing distinct local service environments with varying degrees of insider and outsider status in relation to joined-up responses to the needs of homeless people. Edgar, Filipovic & Dandolova (2007) expressed that access to decent and affordable housing has been a key aspect of the social inclusion strategy since its inception. Housing is a primary contributor to social inclusion and factors that can lead to marginalisation in the housing market can result in social exclusion. Loison (2007) reviewed the right to housing as to why and how an attempt has been made to introduce an enforceable right to housing in France. The enforceable right to housing owes nothing at all to political will. Housing and the homeless dominated the French headlines from the end of 2005 and those current developments linked to the media pressure forced the government's hand and played a major role in the implementation. Vandemark (2007) discussed the psycho-social impact of displacement on homelessness. He focused on the geography literature concerning the sense of space & place and on social theories of self-identity and belonging. The impact of displacement is an important dimension of homelessness because it influences social and functional abilities that are relevant to re-entry into homes and society.

Atherton & Nicholls (2008) said that Housing First approaches explicitly incorporate secure tenures as an intrinsic part of support packages for homeless people who have mental health and substance abuse problems. Economic analysis demonstrates advantages and the

cost of providing support to people in Housing First programmes being considerably less than if they were to remain homeless. Research is, therefore, needed to highlight obstacles to implementation and means by which these can be overcome. Benjaminsen & Dyb (2008) discussed similarities and differences in homeless policies and their effectiveness among three Scandinavian countries of Denmark, Norway and Sweden. The approaches and policies on homelessness differ overall. The three countries are mainly similar with regard to welfare institutions but widely divergent in housing policy and housing regimes, differences in homeless policy derived from differences in housing policy in the respective countries. Busch-Geertsema & Fitzpatrick (2008) expressed that England and Germany are unusual amongst developed economies in reporting declining levels of homelessness. The successful prevention policies must be carefully targeted as the key triggers for homelessness, and need to be underpinned by appropriate resources and an effective governance framework for their implementation. Buyuk et al., (2008) analysed the autopsy records of the Council of Forensic Medicine during the 5 year period, between the years 2000 and 2004, to contribute to the efforts targeted at lowering death rate in the milieu of homelessness by documenting the current status of this group particularly in terms of mode of death. Immediate precautions targeted at lowering death rate must include health care for preventable natural diseases. Hoffman & Coffey (2008) explained how people experiencing homelessness view their interactions with services providers. In response to these experiences, nearly all were angry conscious about their self-respect. This suggests that the perpetuation of homelessness is not internal to the homeless individuals as many claim, but rather may be embedded in the service industry itself, which subjects the clients to bureaucratic forms of authority and experiences of disrespect.

Hrast (2008) examined media representations of homelessness in Slovenia because the media are one of the most important actors in the construction of this social problem. He focused on the trends and fluctuations in homelessness and on its broad content, discussing the implications of these media portrayals of homelessness for our understanding of the phenomenon and policy responses. Neale (2008) explored the relationships between homelessness, drug use and Hepatitis C infection, within the broader context of social exclusion. Homeless drug users (HDUs) tend to experience many life problems and their situation has been described as a double jeopardy. The concept of social exclusion is critically reviewed as a means of understanding the experiences and needs of HDUs infected with HCV.

Olsson & Nordfeldt (2008) discussed homelessness in Sweden in relation to the organisation of the universalistic welfare system with a special focus upon the boundaries inherent in the system and the role of the non-profit sector within the field of welfare services to homeless people. They detected three levels in the Swedish welfare system. First, the universal, labour-income-based system, provided by national governmental agencies; second, the local public social welfare system, based on means-tested social allowances; and third, a non-profit welfare system based on charity. O'Sullivan (2008) critically reviewed recent policy initiatives that have sought to prevent and eliminate homelessness in the Republic of Ireland and explained the processes that resulted in the dramatic shift that occurred in relation to homeless services between the mid-1980s and 2008. Rukmana (2008) investigated places of origin where homeless children and youth come from and identified factors associated with the spatial distribution of the residential origins of homeless children and youth. The areas characterised by deprivation are strongly and positively significant in producing more homeless children and youth.

Anker (2009) discussed the importance of SAND (a national organisation of homeless people) that was formed in 2001. Its existence improves the opportunities for democratic participation by homeless people, who are normally excluded from the spheres of decision-making. It has acquired the legitimacy to participate and to seek to influence local and national homeless policies. The case also pinpoints how ongoing challenges pose a challenge to the democratic ambition of forming a truly representative organisation. Baptista (2009) provided an insider's perspective into the process of drafting the strategy and focused on the interplay between the emergence and operation of specific governance arrangements and the potential for new policy-making mechanisms in the homelessness arena. Benjaminsen & Busch (2009) discussed the consequences of labour market reforms on homelessness by comparing reforms in Denmark and Germany and focused on the dilemmas and consequences that the reforms of social benefit systems and activation policies may have on homelessness and those at risk of homelessness. Flint (2009) tried to locate homelessness within governance processes that utilise access to housing as a site for regulating conduct, particularly in relation to anti-social behaviour, and explored specific mechanisms being used in the United Kingdom, including family intervention projects and housing benefit sanctions, and their relationship to mechanisms of eviction and homeless status. Gwadz et al., (2009) focused that homeless youth who lack employment in the formal economy typically turn to the street economy

(prostitution, drug selling, etc.) for survival. Intervention efforts are needed at multiple levels of influence to promote homeless youth's success in the formal economy. Hrast, Somogyi & Teller (2009) carried out an analysis within the complex framework of changes in social welfare service delivery and the emergence of multi-level governance (national, regional and local) in homeless services provision in Hungary and Slovenia.

Huey (2009) expressed that the West has turned neoliberal, become increasingly punitive in its attitudes and responses to the homeless and other marginalised groups and offered a critique of this view. Author deconstructed some of the fallacies inherent in the recent spate of theorising on social exclusion to support the argument that such big picture views tend to hinder rather than help our understanding of the complexities that one finds on the ground. Lincoln, Plachta & Espejo (2009) found that people with serious mental illness and substance abuse problems continue to represent the majority of those experiencing long-term homelessness. Mander (2009) explained the socio-economic conditions of homeless population in paper '*Living Rough, Surviving City Streets: A Study of the Homeless Populations in Delhi, Chennai, Patna and Madurai*' in which 340 respondents were interviewed from October 2007 to October 2008. The work of homeless people still tends to remain casual, exploitative, chronic and without dignity and security. Life on the pavements generally includes surviving in a physically brutal, distressed and challenging environment with no access to even basic elementary public services and assured healthy food. In addition to it, the urban homeless people are blamed as parasitical, lazy, unhygienic, illegal, largely criminal and they themselves are hold responsible for their poverty in general. There is mutual acrimony and distrust, an unending undeclared cold war between urban homeless people and police and civil officials. Meda (2009) reviewed the role of urban planning in ensuring the provision of adequate affordable housing through the method of inclusionary housing, known as inclusionary zoning, and considers its potential as a tool in the prevention and solution of homelessness. Inclusionary housing requires that a given share of new housing has to be affordable to low and moderate income households. Although the value of inclusionary housing is contested internationally, it has a number of technical, legislative and governance related difficulties. Wagnanska (2009) highlights the challenges of policymaking process in Poland that make the effective adoption of a national homeless strategy more difficult than it is in Western countries, by drafting the stages of the strategy in detail and contrasts this experience with other national developments, including local strategies on homelessness.

Evangelista (2010) made a conceptual effort to apply Amartya Sen's 'capabilities theory' to the study of homelessness which involves understanding the concept of social exclusion as a constituent part of poverty that incidentally highlights the relational roots of poverty and provides the definitions of home, homeless people and homelessness in terms of capabilities, because the government policies, in many cases, are assessed according to the budget allocated to the area or the amount of specific assets offered, rather than according to the entitlements of people and the capabilities they generate. Gharabaghi & Stuart (2010) synthesised core issues of the homeless youth, children's mental health, child welfare, education & youth justice and the adult service sectors that seek to address the varying needs of adults for social assistance and mental health services in the Central East Region. It is a mixed urban, suburban and semi-rural region situated in close proximity to Canada's largest urban centre, Toronto. The Region is often perceived as diverse, encompassing a series of highly affluent commuter communities, relatively isolated rural, small town communities, and urban working class communities. Hansen (2010) articulated that The Danish government recently developed a national homelessness strategy for the period from 2009 to 2012 to reduce homelessness. The strategy has four goals: no one should live on the streets, young people should not stay at homeless hostels, no person should have to stay in a homeless hostel for more than 120 days, and better accommodation solutions must be in place for people being released from prison or leaving institutional care.

Kirkman et al., (2010) conducted interview with 20 children, plus 12 parents/guardians of children who were living in supported accommodation. Children had experienced from 3 to 11 changes of residence, including hotels or motels, refuges, sleeping rough or in cars, rooming or boarding houses, and caravan parks. It was evident that homelessness adversely affected children's sense of security, mood, behaviour, physical health, education and overall experience of childhood. As families moved from one temporary accommodation to the next, they often lost touch with the extended family and their friends, became disconnected from any sense of community, and were left without familiar possessions, treasures, toys, and pets. Experiencing chaotic sequences of accommodation could make children feel confused, insecure, sad, and angry. Homelessness made many children expect instability as a way of life. Meda (2010) explored that migrants are increasingly represented in the homeless population of Spain. Experience of homelessness appears to be particularly acute among recent migrants and becoming less common among more established migrant groups.

Sarikhani (2010) found out the reasons creating homeless phenomenon on the basis of the Population Census of 2001, focusing mainly on homeless women in Karnataka. Indicating the population and proportion of homeless people during the years 1991-2001, status of homeless girls under the age of 7 years, near total household size of homeless family, illiterates, literacy rate among homeless women, sex ratio of homeless population, etc. are represented in major social and economic indexes by districts in Karnataka state, that refers to number of short stay home for women and children in the State. Shinn (2010), in *'Homelessness, Poverty and Social Exclusion in the United States and Europe'*, wrote about differential rates of lifetime homelessness in the United States and Europe. These lifetime rates do not reflect recent efforts to reduce homelessness in some countries. The meagerness of family benefits in the US seems to be associated with family homelessness. Two groups of people experience high rates of homelessness everywhere: racial minorities and people who experience mental illness. Author explained their higher rates of homelessness across nations in terms of four forms of social exclusion based on income, wealth, housing and incarceration.

Mostowska (2011) by focusing the dynamics of migration stated that the concept of citizenship and eligibility for particular benefits is in the process of redefinition in Europe. Migrants may be among the most vulnerable actors on the housing market and due to their economic position, and their social & language skills, they may be at greater risk of homelessness. In the case of migrants facing physical homelessness, there may be problems accessing even basic services. Feher (2011) examined the main question that why some people remain homeless for a long period of time, while others manage to exit homelessness. The author has decided to use expertise in the field of trauma survival to investigate whether chronic homelessness can be viewed as a form of post-traumatic stress disorder. The main question, however, is not how best to understand the experience and narrative of individuals, but how to take this knowledge a step further: what can field workers and policy makers do to help their users move forward and leave the past behind?

Shamshad (2012) studied the spatial patterns of houselessness and the level of socio-economic deprivation in India and found positive relationship between them. The analysis of relationship between houseless population and other variables of socio-economic deprivation indicates that the rate of houselessness is accentuated by the prevalence of housing shortage, slum population and poverty rate, etc. in the country. Fitzpatrick, Johnsen & Bramley (2012) examines the experience of 'multiple exclusion homelessness' (MEH)

amongst migrants to the UK. Homelessness and destitution amongst migrants has become a matter of growing concern in many European countries in recent years, particularly with respect to asylum seekers and refugees, irregular migrants and, increasingly, economic migrants from central and Eastern Europe. O'Sullivan (2012) challenges the debates on the use of criminal justice systems to manage homelessness in which countries have responded to the growing visibility of homelessness with exclusionary measures that, have sought to restrict the rights of homeless people to occupy and inhabit public spaces and which prohibit behaviours such as sleeping in public or begging. Author suggested that the 'punitive turn' is variable and that local circumstances may be more influential in shaping responses to homelessness than neo-liberalism. He also suggested that punitive response to vagrancy and anti-begging legislation & policies are not novel, but rather have a long history.

Theodorikakou, Alamanou & Katsadoros (2013) focused on the impact of the financial crisis and austerity measures on housing exclusion and homelessness in Greece. A new generation of homeless has appeared in Greece; the profile of this new generation of homeless is different to that of the traditional homeless of the country. The general impact of the crisis in Greece, especially on the most vulnerable groups, cannot yet be measured, but it is clear that new initiatives are required in order to promote the development of social solidarity in Greece. Zierler, Martinsson & Weib (2013) analysed individual factors that determine access to accommodation in the private rented housing market provide scope of action for homeless services. Immediate effective social support with a strong goal-orientation can influence and improve the capacity of vulnerable families in terms of stable housing. Empowerment and learning strengthens individuals. However, structural factors like rising costs for housing, lack of housing and low income levels and risk of poverty remain and require further policy development and political action that supports affordable housing.

Baakeel, (2014) examined the problem of the homeless teenagers and the homelessness affects on the teenagers. The homeless teenagers lack education, proper living and sufficient programmes to help reduce the problem. The decision-makers responsibility to provide the appropriate laws and methods to implement the right programmes play an important role to reduce the number of homeless teenagers. He explains the public administration theory related to the homeless teenagers, and provides alternatives for the problem and recommendations. Guerrero Henwood & Wenzel (2014) found that homeless people are among the most marginalised individuals in the United States and experience significant rates of morbidity and

mortality. There is highest concentration of individuals homeless in Los Angeles County, California, and although it features the largest health and social services system available to homeless, it faces significant challenges to provide cost-effective integrated care. Housing and highly coordinated or integrated care represents an efficient and effective way to serve homeless individuals. Parsell et al., (2014) investigate that much of what is known of street homelessness is informed by accounts from urban centres throughout North America and the UK. The nature of the problem and the ways, in which, it is addressed are implicitly assumed to be similar across diverse major cities. The street homeless are thought to be highly marginalised and vulnerable group of people, while, the policies aim to provide housing/accommodation and welfare services to address this form of homelessness as deep exclusion. It argued is here that cultural mobility and modes of behaviour that normalise rough sleeping are embedded within condoned poverty and discriminatory legislation directed towards indigenous people. Thus, indigenous people are constructed as out of place in urban environments and rather than housing and welfare, the focus is directed towards moving the problem. Salem et al., (2014) expressed in their study that homeless urbanites are a heterogeneous population with unique health and social service needs. Authors examined the direct impact of situational, behavioural, health-related and resource indicators on frailty, hypothesised as a latent variable by using structural equation modelling (SEM).

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Chapter 3

Research Framework

It is a fact that the problem of houselessness is as old as the first human permanent settlement on the surface of the Earth, however, there have been changes in the economy, demographics, social structure and national housing policies which have created housing problems in certain geographic regions and for certain sections of the society, because houselessness is a housing problem that is more visible in the urban areas rather than the rural counterparts. Nonetheless, after centuries of assisting, denying and rejecting the needs of the houseless population, we are still searching for the solutions to the problem.

Therefore, this study explores the various definitions of houselessness and how these definitions have developed, causes responsible for houselessness, socio-economic characteristic of houseless population, problems faced by houseless people, infrastructural facilities availed by the houseless, etc. Houselessness may be simply defined as the lack of house or shelter. The absence of a place to live (a house or apartment or room i.e. the physical structure) which also includes the absence of belonging to a place and the people living there is called a home in the social/psychological sense.

Thus, home is not only a physical place offering safety and security, but also it inimitably encompasses the social, psychological, emotional and cultural aspects of domestic living including key processes and decision-making, like warmth & love, hearth & heart, relaxation, happiness, stability, cherished memories, attachments & relations, homeliness as home coming, home sickness, homemade, home rule, home-work, home like, and so on so forth, while, physical dwelling does not possesses such attributes. That is why, the terms homeless, houseless, roofless, shelterless people, pavement dwellers, vagrants, slum dwellers, etc. do not always cover the same target group. The same term may correspond to different definitions depending upon the studies. Therefore, the problem of reliable estimation and clear definition of houseless population was usually encountered in the surveys conducted in the urban areas.

The expression 'houseless household' refers to the households without a shelter that would fall within the scope of living quarters. They carry their few possessions with them while sleeping in the streets, in doorways or on piers, or in any other space, on a more or less random basis¹. This definition is taken from the UN Manual Principles and

¹. Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses, Sales No. E. XVII United Nations 1998, Paragraph 1.328.

Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses, 'carrying the possessions' and the 'random sleeping place' are the main characteristics of this definition. But this does not seem to be sufficient to describe the different realities of houseless population in different countries. Possessions can be placed with another person and people might sleep in a public shelter on a regular basis. Other countries have, therefore, widened this description to include people sleeping in institutions meant for those without any form of shelter.

For example, the Census of India uses the notion of 'houseless population', defined as the persons who are not living in 'census houses', the latter referring to 'a structure with roof'. Hence, the enumerators are instructed to take note of the possible places where the houseless population is likely to live such as on the roadside, pavements, in hume pipes, under staircases, or in the open, temple, mandaps, platforms and the like (Census of India, 1991: 64 and Dupont, 1998: 5). This part of the population which includes those sleeping without shelter, in constructions not meant for habitation, and in welfare institutions can be called literally houseless.

Therefore, houseless population is defined as the people who do not live in a house, having few possessions with them used to sleep and live in the informal places, not meant for human habitation, excluding the slums dwellers, nomadic tribal people (gipsies) and Hindu saints, and a house, being a physical structure of dwelling with roof and walls as a separate unit has the separate main entrance into it from the public way. The informal places are those places which are not meant for human habitation like the streets, pavements, road dividers, under ledges of shops or houses, under bridges, over bridges, flyovers, subways, drainage pipes, under staircases, courtyard of worship places, abandoned buildings, working places, ATMs or banks, cinema halls, parks, shrines, graveyards, hospitals, Govt. night shelters, NGO's night shelters, emergency night shelters, market corridors, premises of railway stations & bus stands, etc.

The studies that have been carried out worldwide upto now on the subject of houselessness are based only on social sample surveys and mostly on very small size of samples, and they have dealt with the general aspects of houselessness. There is not even a single study traced about this urban poorest marginalised population in India, except two or three articles. As houselessness is a wide and multifaceted phenomenon, nothing reasonably worthwhile can be propounded on the basis of few people case studies. Hence, as a modest attempt to lessen, to some extent, the deficiency of micro-level studies pertaining to socio-economic and structural aspects of houseless population in the context of the developing countries of the world, the present study on '*Houseless Population in Kanpur City: A Socio-Economic and Structural Analysis*' has been made. The attempt is also made due to the full

cognizance of the fact that houseless population is involved in different socio-economic and political problems of a country or a nation and that the knowledge of various facets of the houselessness is imperative for all sorts of planning and development programmes particularly in urban areas. An empirical study, based on the empirical facts collected through intensive field investigations, provides a better understanding about houselessness which will provide a milestone for further inquiry in future. The study is almost exclusively based on primary data generated through field surveys in Kanpur city.

3.1. Objectives of the study

The main objective of the study is to analyse and explain the socio-economic and demographic structure of houseless population in Kanpur city. For this, the age, sex, caste-category, religion, marital status, migratory status, literacy & educational status, occupational status, income & expenditure, household amenities & assets, bad habits & diseases, causes & duration of houselessness, etc. have been considered and their implications have been attempted to be projected. The major thrust of this analysis is to highlight the problems caused and problems faced by houseless population in Kanpur city. To be specific, socio-cultural, economic, demographic and political problems have been considered under this analysis. However, as the socio-economic composition of the houseless population is found to be the main operator in the specified problems, special emphasis has been given to its analysis in the city. Apart from this, the socio-economic conditions of houseless population at very micro-level have also been identified and examined. Within this framework, the empirical study seeks to focus attention on the explanatory analysis of the following important issues pertaining to houseless population:

- (i) The social attributes of the houseless population which determine the characteristics of their social life.
- (ii) The economic dimensions of houselessness that exert a pervasive influence on the economic characteristics of the houseless population in Kanpur city.
- (iii) The determinants of out-migration of houseless population operating in their places of origin and the repulsive forces of their in-migration in Kanpur city.
- (iv) The socio-economic causes of houselessness that force the people to become shelterless.
- (v) The effects of the social, economic and demographic structures of houselessness as determinants of the magnitude and nature of change caused in the socio-economic characteristics of houseless population.

- (vi) The significance of availability and accessibility of infrastructural facilities and modern household amenities and assets to the houseless population in Kanpur city.
- (vii) The desirability of the recommendations to curb the problem of houselessness in the city.

3.2. Hypotheses of the study

To fulfill the set objectives of the present research work, in this study, the following hypotheses have been formulated and tested:

- (i) Whether the facet of houselessness is a problem of male population, mentally and physically disables, working age-groups, illiterates, Hindus, widowed and separated/divorced, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and individual houseless households in the urban world.
- (ii) Is houseless persons are daily casual un-skilled workers and either saving and remitting some part of their income to homes or mainly spending on food, clothing, medical services, education and miscellaneous categories, lest they may be paying money to the space owners for living & sleeping at places like footpaths, for bathing, drinking water & defecation services.
- (iii) Whether the houselessness in the Kanpur city is the outcome of in-migration of people and their flow either from neighbouring places or distance places in the country.
- (iv) Whether the economic reasons predominated as push factors of houseless out-migration from their places of origin into the Kanpur city in comparison to social, biological and natural factors. Similarly, the economic reasons predominated as pulling factors of in-migration of houseless population in the city than social and biological pulling factors.
- (v) Is houseless population in the city is the outcome of economic causes as compared to the social, biological and natural causes of houselessness.
- (vi) Whether the houseless people ever get the chance to live in the house in their whole life, if they have not lived what is the duration of houselessness and places of their living/sleeping.
- (vii) Whether houseless persons reported the interruptions in their sleeping and living, the victims of bad habits, prostrated to various diseases, felt the weather inclementness, socially disaffiliation, need of security from various kinds of humiliation and disturbances, faced very ill-treatment by the general population,

bad experience at the various occasions and faced a lot of social, economic and infrastructural problems daily in their life.

- (viii) Whether houseless population is able to avail and access modern household infrastructural facilities and amenities, recreational facilities, and governmental services in the Kanpur city.

3.3. The study area

Geography is a broad discipline that spans the natural and social sciences. Its central tenet is that place matters. Geographers have been concerned with how people conceptualise space and place and with the impact this has on self-identity, sense of belonging and participation in society. Although geography has its roots in the ancient world, but modern geographical thought also reflects postmodern concerns about human–environment relations and evolving social conditions. (Vandemark, 2007: 242). Semple also writes (1911) ‘A struggle for existence means a struggle for space’. The city as the projection of society on space: people in relation one with another give space ‘a form, a function, a social signification’ (Castells, 1977: 115).

Thus, the concept of space emphasises the role of human behaviour and social forces in molding the spatial character of our world (Moon, 1990: 165-171). For example, by gathering in a particular space for a meaningful activity such as a religious or memorial service, people transform space into a meaningful place, a holy site, or a burial place. Space and time are often linked in our perception. Human concepts that involve space include accessibility, density (crowding), nearness (familiarity), direction, and time to destination (Vandemark, 2007: 242).

In fact, the human landscape is overlaying on the natural landscape; it means that spatial distribution of human habitat is the outcome of physio-cultural conditions and socio-economic attributes of the inhabitants in a particular area on the surface of the Earth. Therefore, analysis of physio-cultural and socio-economic conditions of the study area is a pre-requisite need before proceeding concerned problem.

3.3.1. Significance of the study area

The Kanpur city of Uttar Pradesh has been selected for this study. It has been the first largest as well as most populous metropolitan city of the State of Uttar Pradesh till the Indian Census 2001. But after 2011 Indian Census, it slipped down to the second position after Lucknow (capital city of Uttar Pradesh) in Uttar Pradesh and stands at twelfth position in the country. It is the 75th largest city in the world. It is known as the Economic and Industrial Capital of Uttar Pradesh and widely known as ‘the Manchester of the East’, as it is one of the oldest industrial townships of North India due to the existence of several cotton, woollen

and jute mills (viz., Swadeshi Cotton Mills, The Muir Mills, Elgin Mill Co. Ltd., Laxmi Ratan Cotton Mills, J.K. Cotton Spinning & Weaving Mills, Elgin Mills No. 2, Atherton West & Co., Cownpure Textile, Lal Imli i.e. Cownpore Woollen Mills, Kanpur Cambal Manufacturers, J.K. Jute Mills, Maheshwari Devi Jute Mills, etc.). It is also known as Leather City because it contains one of the largest and finest tanneries in India as well as in South Asia like, Prime Products, Indian National Tannery, U.P. Tannery, British India Corporation-North-West Tannery Branch, Hindustan Tanners, Union Modern Tannery, etc.

The Kanpur city is now emerging as the destination of light industries and works viz., plastic industries, engineering industries, chemical industries and export & import of edible items (cereals, pulses, spices, fruits, etc.), constructive & decorative items, etc. The city has also become an important educational centre owing to the presence of various reputed universities & colleges, engineering & management institutes and research organisations. The Kanpur city is enjoying well connected network of the railways, roadways, and even airways with rest of the country which provide an easy access for the migrants to the city for employment opportunities, education, medical & health services and various other purposes.

3.3.2. Historical back ground of the city

It is believed by some scholars that Kanpur has derived its name from Kanhiyapur, which, in the course of time, might have been abbreviated as Kanhapur, and subsequently as Kanpur. According to a legend, Kanpur owes its name to Lord Krishna whose ear-piercing ceremony was performed at the site of Bari Ghat on the Ganga. The Kanhapur owes its origin to Raja Hindu Singh of Sachendi who came here in 1750 CE (Christian era) to bathe in Holy River the Ganga and established a village which he named Kanhapur and this name became Kanpur in the course of time. During British rule, it was spelled as Cawnpore (see Plate 3.1). Others believe that the name is derived from Karnapur and is associated with Karna, one of the heroes of Mahabharata. Duryodhana, seeing Karna as a fitting match to Arjuna, made him a king of this area; hence the name Karnapur which later became Kanpur.

The waves of industrialisation reached the city in 1858. The first major industry, the Harness and Saddlery, was established in 1860. Other mills such as The Elgin Mills, The Cawnpore Woollen Mills (Lal Imli at present) and the Victoria Mills were set up in 1864, 1870 and 1885 respectively. After the First World War, several mills like, the Swadeshi, the J.K. Cotton Spinning & Weaving Mills, the Lakshmi Ratan Cotton Mills, etc. were established. The first re-rolling mill of India was established in 1928 by the Singh Engineering Work.



Plate 3.1: Kanpur was Spelled as Cawnpore during British Rule in India

The Second World War gave fresh impetus to industrial complex. Prior to Independence, it was the second most industrialised city in India after Calcutta. Kanpur city is still a main centre of commercial and industrial activities. The City formerly known as 'Manchester' of the country due to the existence of large number of cotton textile units is now also called the commercial capital of the state. It is known for its cotton and woolen textile and leather industries. Kanpur is one of the biggest producers of Textile and Leather products.

Apart from leather and textile industries, the fertilisers, chemicals, engineering automobile, soaps, Pan Masala, hosiery, plastic, spices, bakeries industries, etc. are also operating prominently in the city. In the post-independence years, Kanpur has changed from a town of mill owners to mill workers so that the city is consisted of large number of middle and low class population of entrepreneurs, artisans and petty workers. To cope with the industrial growth, a second thermal power station was built at Panki in 1966 for augmenting the older riverside power station. Panki now produces a total of 284 MW of power.

Therefore, Kanpur has traditionally been an industrial city. Kanpur has gradually emerged as a dynamic city in terms of academic importance. Its beginning as a centre of knowledge was laid down in the mid-19th century with the foundation of Christ Church College, the oldest educational institution in the city, which was started as a high school and became a degree college in 1919. At the present, Kanpur is host of several institutes of repute such as Indian Institute of Technology (IIT), Kanpur, two universities, viz. Chhatrapati Shahu Ji Maharaj University, Kanpur and Chandra Sekhar Azad University of Agriculture and Technology, a Medical College & several hospitals, and technical institutions such as the National Sugar Institute, the Central Textile Institute, the Leather Institute, etc.

3.3.3. Administrative set up of the city

Kanpur district was bifurcated into two districts namely Kanpur Nagar and Kanpur Dehat at the time of 1981 Census. Kanpur Nagar District comprises of 3 Tehsils (Kanpur, Bilhaur and Ghatampur), 10 blocks (Kalyanpur, Chaubepur, Vidhunu, Sarsal, Bilhaur, Kakwan, Shivrajpur, Ghatampur, Patara and Bhitargaon), 2 Municipal Boards (Shukla Ganj Nagar Palika and Unnao Nagar Palika), 2 Nagar Panchayats (Akbarpur Nagar Panchayat and Bithoor Nagar Panchayat) and Kanpur Urban Agglomeration area includes Armapur Estate, Chakeri, Kanpur Cantonment Board, Kanpur municipal corporation, Kanpur municipal corporation outgrowth and Northern Railway Colony. Kanpur Nagar is also the divisional headquarter of the Commissioner for Kanpur Dehat, Etawah, Auraiya, Farrukhabad and Kannauj districts.

The city is administratively divided into 6 zones and 110 wards (with average 18 wards with an average ward population range of 20,000 to 25,000. According to 2001 Census, municipal area is about 261.50 square kilometer. In 1961, municipal area was 184.35 square kilometer (114.55 sq. miles) which has increased to 605 square kilometers at the present. However, the Kanpur Urban Agglomeration, as defined by Indian Census of 2001, has a population of 26,90,486 and area is comprised of Kanpur Municipal area and outgrowth, Kanpur cantonment board, Armapur estate, northern railway colony and Chakeri.

The metropolitan region, defined under JNNURM (Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission) by Kanpur Nagar Nigam, includes the Kanpur Nagar Nigam (KNN) area, 8 kilometer around KNN boundary and newly included 47 villages of Unnao district on the north-eastern side. The metropolitan region area includes the area of Shukla Ganj Nagar Palika, Unnao Nagar Palika, Akbarpur Nagar Panchayat, Bithoor Nagar Panchayat area.

The major functions being performed by Kanpur Nagar Nigam are: i- Public health, sanitation, conservancy and solid waste management. ii- Urban poverty alleviation. iii- Provision and maintenance of urban amenities and facilities such as parks, gardens, playgrounds, etc. iv- Providing and maintaining the lighting of the public streets, corporation markets, and public buildings and other places vested in the corporation. v- Maintenance of ambulance services. vi- Registration of vital statistics including births and deaths. vii- Regulation of slaughter houses and tanneries. viii- Burial grounds, cremation grounds, etc.

3.3.4. Geo-climatic setting of the city

The geographical location of Kanpur city lies between the parallels of 26° 10' and 26° 36' north latitude and 79° 30' and 80° 35' east longitude (see Fig. 3.1). The lines of 80° 2' 30' E longitude and 26° 28' 15" N latitude pass through mid of the city and the city is located in the central part of the state of Uttar Pradesh. The topographical information of the city has been covered in two Toposheets namely 63 B/6 and 63 B/7 having the scale of 1/50,000 in which Kanpur Dehat, Kanpur Nagar and Unnao districts have been covered (Surveyor of India, 1974).

The city is situated in the fertile central plain of the Upper Ganga valley on the right bank i.e. the south-western bank of Ganga River, at about 126 meters above the sea level. Kanpur city is connected by road with all the major cities of the country, and situated on the most important national highways NH-2 (Delhi-Agra-Allahabad-Calcutta Route), NH-24 (Lucknow-Jhansi-Shivpuri Route) and NH-86 (Kanpur-Dewas Route).

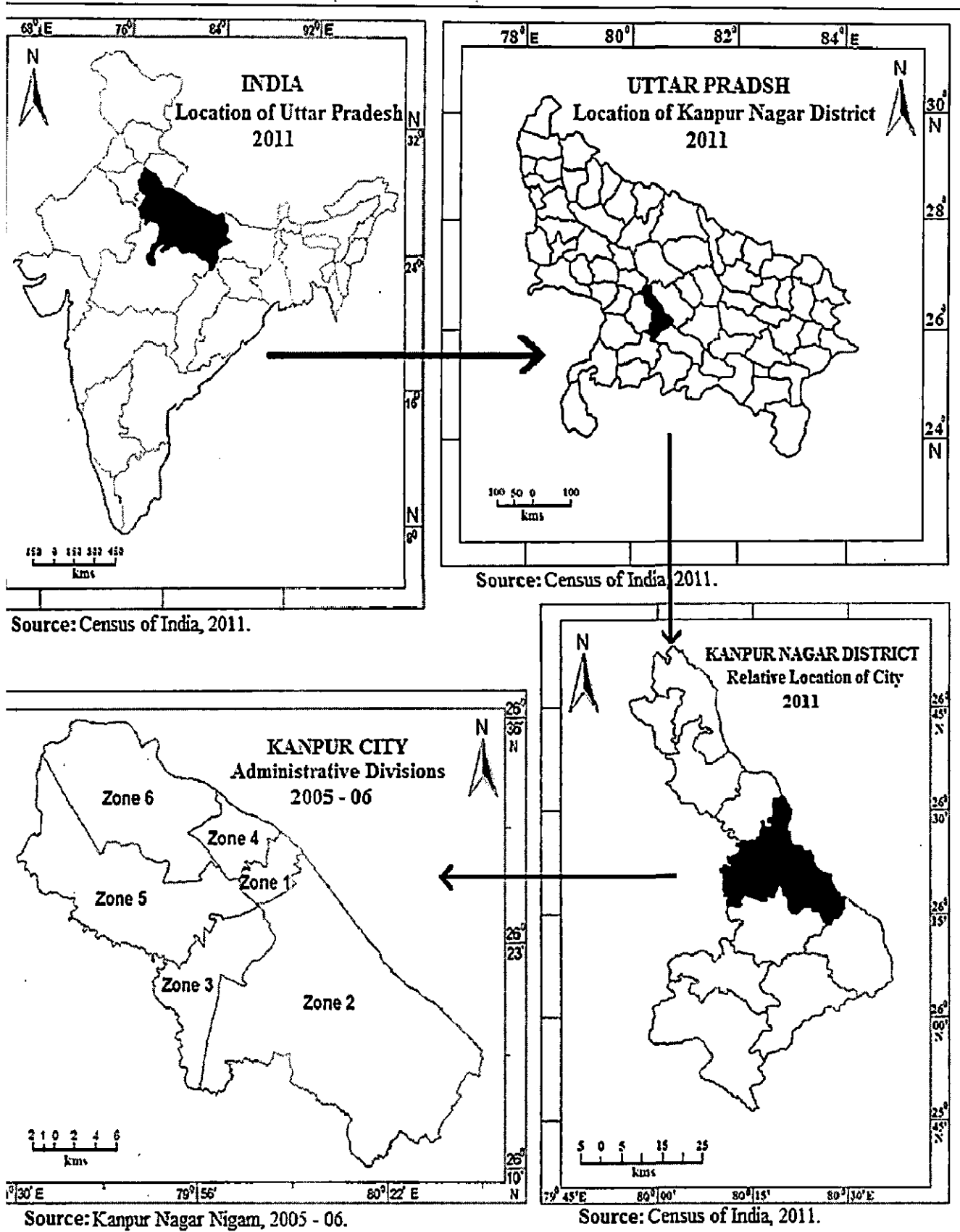


Fig. 3.1

It is also served by railway routes of Northern Railway, Central Railway and North-Eastern Railway systems, first two being broad gauge and the last one metre gauge. The main line of Northern Railway from Delhi to Mughal Sarai and from Mughal Sarai to Kolkata on the Eastern Railway passes through Kanpur city. The city is located at the distance of 79 kilometres from Lucknow, 193 kilometres from Allahabad, 329 kilometres from Varanasi, 398 kilometres from Khajuraho, 269 kilometres from Agra and 222 kilometres from Jhansi.

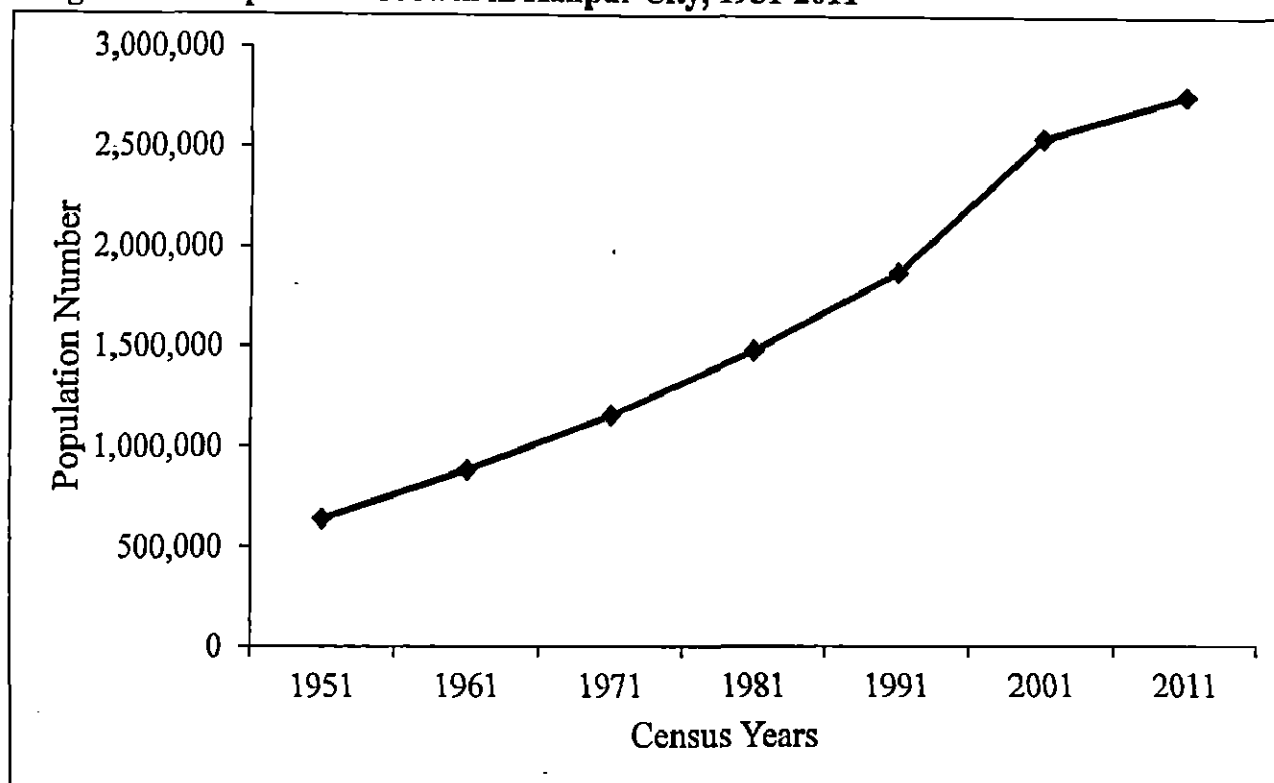
The climate of Kanpur city is characterised by hot summer and dryness except in the south-west monsoon season. Kanpur city's climate can be broadly divided into four seasons. The period from March to the mid of June is the summer season which is followed by the south-west monsoon, which lasts till the end of September, October and first half of November form the post-monsoon or transition period. The cold season spreads from the mid of November to February. The climate is tropical in nature and the range of temperature varies from 20° C to 48° C. Rainy season extends from June to September, with the period of maximum rainfall normally occurring during the months of July and August. About 89 percent of the annual rainfall is received during the monsoon months (June to September).

The total rainfall in the city varies from between 450 mm to 750 mm. The annual rainfall in Kanpur Nagar district was recorded 441 mm in actual in 2004 and 783 mm in general (Statistics Diary 2005). On an average there are 40 rainy days i.e. days with rainfall of 2.5 mm or more in a year in the city. The relative humidity varies from 15% to 85%. The relative humidity in the city ranges from less than 30 percent in the summer season to 70 percent in monsoon season. The city lies in the Ganga basin which is formed of alluvium of the early quaternary period. In the city, no hard or consolidated rock exposures are encountered. The main constituents (sand, silt and clay) of alluvium occur in variable proportions in different sections. The Earth is saline in nature which is the reservoir of its mineral products, from which salt petre & salt are derived and limestone conglomerates (District Gazetteers India, 1998: 761-771).

3.3.5. Demographic characteristics of the city

According to the 2011 Census, the city had a population of 27,67,031 (27.67 lakh) which made it the twelfth most highly populated city in India. Among the big towns of Uttar Pradesh, the growth of Kanpur has been phenomenal and it ranked third after Lucknow and Varanasi in since 1901 but by 1961 Census it assumed a top position in the list. In the present Indian Census 2011, Lucknow pips down Kanpur and emerges as most populous city of the state and regained first position on the population front. Lucknow's population now rests at 28,15,601 (28.15 lakh), up from 22.45 lakh in 2001.

Diagram 3.1: Population Growth in Kanpur City, 1951-2011



Source: Based on table 3.1.

As far as the population of urban agglomeration (UA) is concerned, Kanpur is still maintaining its first position in the state having the population 29,20,067 against the population of Lucknow urban agglomeration (UA) 29,01,474. Kanpur city has registered an increase of over five times from 1,97,170 in 1901 to 8,83,815 in 1961 in the course of six decades (vide Diagram 3.1).

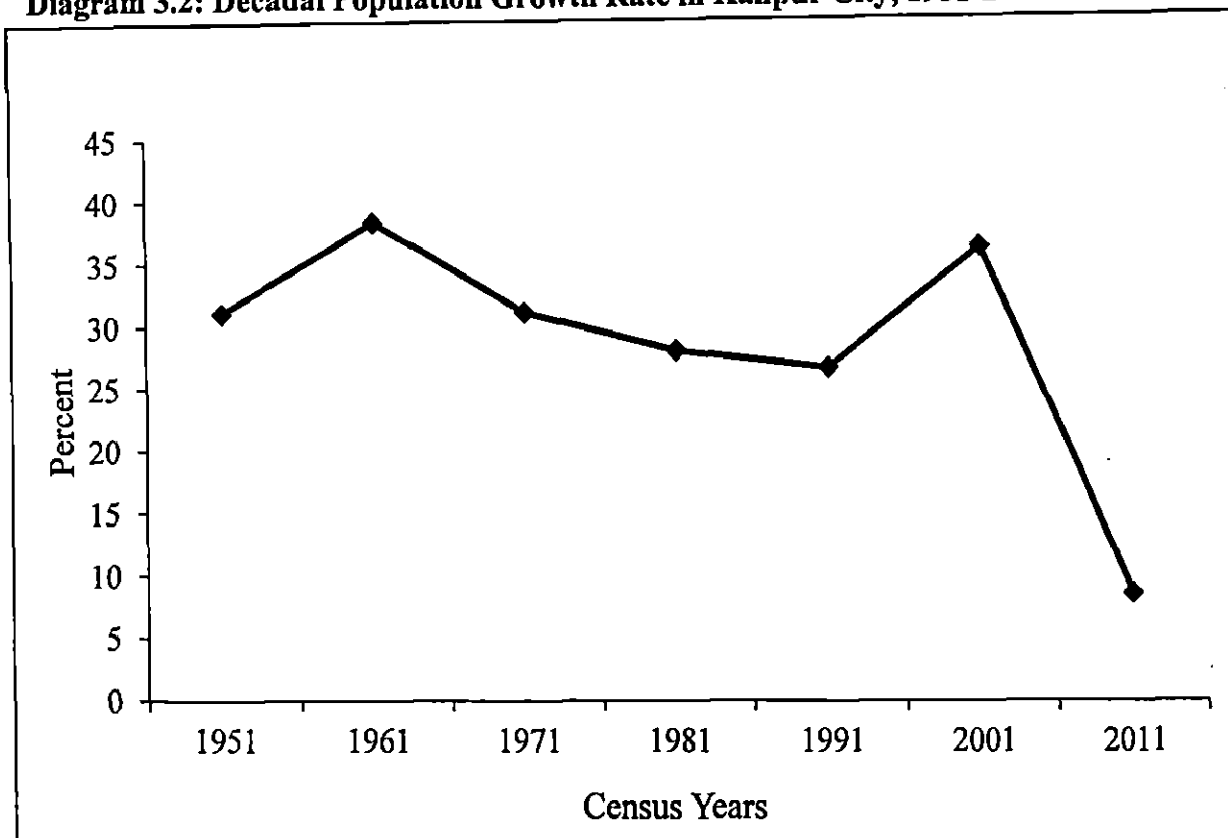
Table 3.1: Population Change in Kanpur City, 1951-2011

Year	Total population	Decadal change	Decadal growth rate (%)
1941	4,87,324	-	-
1951	6,38,734	1,51,410	31.10
1961	8,83,815	2,45,081	38.36
1971	11,58,321	2,74,506	31.05
1981	14,81,789	3,23,468	27.92
1991	18,74,409	3,92,620	26.49
2001	25,51,337	6,76,928	36.11
2011	27,67,031	2,15,694	8.45

Source: Primary Census Abstract, Series 10, Volume 1, Census of India, 2001.

This is mainly due to its most central location in the state and simultaneously it has benefited from its fertile agricultural hinterland of the Upper Ganga Valley and Bundelkhand plateau, the available developed links of transportation, and the stimulant of World War II with its industrial demand. In spite of a low percentage of irrigated area, the population density (i.e. 1366 persons per square kilometre) is quite high which is mainly due to industrial concentration.

Diagram 3.2: Decadal Population Growth Rate in Kanpur City, 1951-2011



Source: Based on table 3.1.

As per 2011 Indian Census, the population of Kanpur city in 2011 is 27,67,031 (27.67 lakh), Out of total population, male population was 15,02,370 which is 54.30 percent and female population was 12,64,661 i.e. 45.70 percent. Although it has a population of 27,67,031 but its metropolitan population is 29,20,067 of which 15,84,967 are males and 13,35,100 are females. Kanpur city recorded the total population of 27,67,031 in 2011 Census as compared to the 25,51,337 people registered in 2001 Census, and it is for the first time that the city witnessed an average annual population growth rate of 0.84 per cent (vide Diagram 3.2).

It may be observed that the average annual growth rate of population has increased to 3.6 percent during the period 1991-2001 from the average annual growth rate of 2.6 percent in the previous decade (1981-91). One of the main factors for this kind of growth is the higher number of in-migrants to Kanpur city from rural areas of surrounding districts due to continuous decreasing size of land holding and employment opportunities (Table 3.1).

Table 3.2 exhibits that Kanpur city has a literacy rate of 84.14 percent as per 2011 Census. There is an overall increase of more than 15 percent from 69.00 percent in 2001 to 84.14 percent in 2011. Increase in literacy rates is recorded among both male as well as female population. These respective figures increased from 72.50 per cent to 85.77 percent for male and from 64.70 per cent to 82.21 percent for female population.

Table 3.2: Literacy Rate in Kanpur City, 2001-2011

2001 Census					2011 Census			
	Total	Percent	Literates	Percent	Total	Percent	Literates	Percent
Total	25,51,337	-	1758807	69.0	2,767,031	-	2,116,973	84.14
Male	13,74,121	53.86	997001	72.5	1,502,370	54.30	1,172,323	85.77
Female	11,77,216	46.14	761806	64.7	1,264,661	45.70	944,650	82.21

Source: Primary Census Abstract, Series 10, Volume 1, Census of India, 2001.

According to 2011 Census, the sex ratio (i.e. the number of females per thousand males) in the Kanpur city was 842, which is much lower than the average sex-ratio of 912 of the state of Uttar Pradesh. Child sex-ratio, i.e. the number of girls per thousand boys, was 853 while total children population (0-6) in the city, in 2011 Census, was 25,1,127 in which 1,35,498 were boys and 1,15,629 were girls. The child population composes 9.08 percent share of total population of Kanpur City. The Hindus are the most dominating group constituting nearly one-third (60.00 percent) proportion of the total population; followed by Muslims (36.00 percent), Jains (1.7 percent), and others religious groups (2.3 percent).

3.3.6. Housing status in the city

U.P. Housing board acquires the land and allots plots for construction of HIG, MIG and LIG houses. The housing schemes launched by U.P. Housing Board are Deendayal Puram, Hanspuram and Pani-Kaluanpuri Yojana. As per the latest data available, UPHDB has 1126.32 hectares area in possession, out of which, only 688.54 hectares (61.00 percent) has been developed. About 5 to 10 percent residents carry out tiny/petty activities like grocery shops; barber shops, etc. at their residences. The primary survey conducted by the RITES revealed that majority of the existing houses in Kanpur town are plotted type as compared to flats/ apartments and people also have a high preference for this type of houses. Upto 31st March 2006, U.P. Housing Board has developed 26,690 houses (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Houses Developed by U.P. Housing Board in Kanpur City

Yojana	Year of starting the scheme (under section 32)	Acquired land (in acre)	Developed houses	Allotted houses	Acquired houses	% of Acquired houses
Yojana No. 1	20.9.1980	519.74	7617	7195	5498	72.2
Yojana No. 2	20.9.1980	818.34	11818	10279	8341	70.6
Yojana No.3	28.8.1982	1808.30	7255	6936	4535	62.5
Total.	-	3146.38	26690	24410	18374	68.8

Source: Data collected from U.P. Housing Board, 2006.

Out of total developed houses, more than 91.00 percent have been allotted but only 68.80 percent houses have been occupied so far. The vacant houses are mostly in Yojana No. 2, which are vacant mainly due to their location at the remote places and poor

connectivity with the main city. As per 2001 Census, 20,720 houses were in dilapidated condition which needed re-construction and therefore added to the housing needs. They were mainly located in the inner part of the city.

Table 3.4: Accessibility to Basic Services in Existing Housing Stock in Kanpur City

Proportion of houses having electricity, safe drinking water & toilet	Percent of total
Electricity	66.38
Safe Drinking water	82.39
Toilet	63.61
Electricity & Safe Drinking Water	59.63
Toilet & Safe Drinking Water	57.82
Electricity & Toilet	58.40
All Three Facilities	53.32
None of the Three Facilities	10.15

Source: Kanpur Development Authority Vision Document, Final Report, November, 2003.

Through qualitative assessment of the condition of houses, it has been brought out that 67.32 percent of houses are in fair condition, whereas, 28.08 percent are in good condition and 4.60 percent are in bad condition. Out of total available houses, 33.62 percent houses are still not covered by electricity, 17.61 percent houses lack safe drinking water and 36.39 percent have no toilets facility. Table 6.6 reveals the fact that still 10.15 percent houses are not covered by any of the basic services. The access to basic utility services for the existing housing stock is presented in the Table 3.4.

As per the proposed Environment Management Plan (2000), the existing housing localities have been broadly categorised into six zones:

- (a) **City core area:** It comprises old interior areas in 24 densely populated wards. It has maximum housing density and many dilapidated houses. It is characterised by limited civic amenities, which are already exploited beyond their capacity.
- (b) **Intermediate North-West Areas:** It incorporates the houses which were constructed for accommodating various government officers. It includes posh Civil Lines, Tilak Nagar, Arya Nagar and Swaroop Nagar. It has comparatively better housing quality than other areas.
- (c) **Intermediate South-West Areas:** It includes areas which are dominated by middle-income group. These areas are still developing in terms of population as well as housing construction. There is sharp contrast in quality of housing blocks in these areas as most of them are individual private dwellings and owned by households with uneven economic status. It has moderately developed civic amenities with few well-maintained residential blocks.

- (d) **Intermediate Eastern Areas:** This zone is characterised by abundance of slum 'Hatas'² which affects the overall scenario of housing quality. These areas are quite similar to city core area as they also have high housing density, dilapidated houses and limited civic amenities.
- (e) **Eastern Housing Areas:** These areas are close to defense establishments and situated far away from main city. Housing development along G.T. Road after Chakeri is very slow.
- (f) **Western Housing Areas:** These areas comprised of housing schemes i.e. Panki, Kalyanpur, and Indra Nagar which falls in western part of the city. This area has high growth rate of housing development but is lagging behind in terms of provision of corresponding civic amenities.

The housing need and demand has been assessed on the basis of housing shortage, reconstruction of houses, population projections, household size and expansion of existing houses. The estimated housing demand for different income categories has been reflected in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: Housing Demand Projections in Kanpur City (2001 to 2013)

Income groups	Number of dwelling units	
	2006-2010	2011-2013
BPL	12,829	11,715
EWS	18,456	16,853
LIG	25,178	22,991
MIG	19,268	17,594
HIG	14,932	13,635
Total	90,663	82,788

Source: Kanpur Development Authority Vision Document, Final Report, November, 2003.

Majority of the respondents (67.94%) prefer the housing supply done by UPHDB followed by KDA (13.34%), private builders (12.44%) and cooperative society (6.28%). MIG and HIG (12.44%) income group prefers more the private builders/ contractors. It has been felt that the private builders will play a major role in housing activity. Total future land requirement is 3216 hectares. The preferred locations, where the land could be acquired for future housing colonies and the availability of land in these locations, have been identified at Panki, Kalyanpur, Lakhanpur and Rama Devi.

3.4. Sample and survey design

The data which give direct or indirect information regarding houseless population are very limited and vary from country to country. The direct questionnaire pertaining to houseless population has not still been inserted in the national Censuses of the countries; except a few

². Hatas is an enclosed area of unhygienic living conditions and not suitable for settlements.

including India, which is just counting the number of houseless population. Estimates of houseless population in India illustrate how different methods can generate completely different results. One method of calculating houseless persons is to equate it with the difference between the total number of households and the usable housing stock³. Such a calculation implies that there were some 18.5 million houseless people in India in 1991 Census and that some 4.8 million of these were living in urban areas (UNCHS, 1996a cf. UNCHS/Habitat, 2000: 164). As Raj and Baross (1990, pp. 19-23) indicate, however, there is also a need to consider the amount of housing that declines with the passage of time and lack of maintenance across the acceptability threshold and that which is lost to the stock. This might be anything from 1 to 5 per cent per annum⁴. It is also necessary to take account of changing needs and expectations within households that can generate unforeseen housing needs.

If housing shortage is taken as a measure of houselessness on the grounds that if a household must share someone else's living accommodation or its dwelling is due for demolition, it is houseless, and then India would probably have some 20 million houseless households (probably 110 million houseless people) on this measure alone. If those who are not sharing a dwelling but have poor servicing, and those whose tenure is very uncertain are added, the numbers become very large indeed. Moreover, the number of houseless households can also be calculated through the number of households not living in a shelter classified as a 'census house.' These would be considered 'houseless'. This gives much lower figures.

The 1981 Houseless Census indicated that there were 6,30,000 houseless households, or some 23,43,000 houseless people (UNCHS/Habitat, 2000: 49). The 1991 Census of India showed a much lower figure of 2,17,000 (0.5 per cent) houseless households (e.g. not living in census houses). If these were assumed to have a similar mean size to the housed households, there would have been 1.2 million houseless people in 1991. This is twice the estimate of 6,00,000 for pavement dwellers used by the Housing and Urban Development Corporation (HUDCO) for its houseless shelter plans. This rate would suggest more than one million houseless people in urban areas of India. If an even wider definition of houselessness is used, e.g. by including those occupying 'slums' (*Jhuggi and Jhoparies*) and sharers, very large numbers would come within the remit. There are about 45.7 million

³. Usable housing stock is defined as 'pucca' plus 'semi-pucca' plus serviceable 'kutchra' housing. See UNCHS/Habitat, 1996a.

⁴. Depending on whether we assume that housing lasts 20 or 100 years, at the Extremes cited here, before rebuilding or major renovation is required.

people (21 per cent of the total 215 million urban population) in *Jhuggi and Jhoparies* and a further 90,000 sharers. Census of India (2001) enumerated 1.94 million houseless people in India, of whom 1.16 million lived in villages, and only 0.78 million lived in cities and towns. It is estimated that at least 1 percent of the population of cities is houseless. While the actual figures of urban shelterless are not yet available from the three of them, this places the estimate of urban houseless persons in India to be at least around 3 million.

However, these numbers are likely to be gross underestimates, because homeless people tend to be a highly invisible group especially to officials. Their invisibility renders them a difficult group to work with, although many have lived many years, sometimes even a generation or two, on the streets and survived. They lack a formal address, and also are rendered anonymous because they usually lack even the elementary markers of citizenship of poor people in India like ration cards and voters' identity cards.

According to Census of India 2011, the total houseless households in the country were 4,49,761, in which, 1,92,865 houseless households were identified in the rural areas while 2,56,896 houseless households were observed in the urban parts of India. As far as the number of houseless population is concerned, there were 1.73 million houseless population in the country where the respective figures for rural and urban areas stand 0.84 million and 0.94 million. It means that there is reduction of 1,70,587 houseless people in 2011 Indian Census (viz., 17,72,889) from the Census 2001 (i.e. 19,43,476).

3.4.1. Survey

The present study now is an attempt to take up the task of collecting requisite and relevant data through field survey and direct interrogation from respondents, on the basis of a well-drawn questionnaire, in randomly sampled wards in order to study micro-level facts about the various socio-economic aspects of houseless population. By tabulating the data, the requisite and reliable statistics about socio-economic characteristics, causes and implications of houselessness can be obtained for objective analysis. As a matter of fact, this is the only method, under the existing state of Census records, by which micro-level studies of houselessness can be pursued with confidence and specified purpose. In addition to this, questionnaire-based sample surveys are the only means by which the question of linkages between attitude and behaviour in houseless people can be satisfactorily analysed.

Therefore, present research work is based on the primary survey, carried out during 2012 for the collection of the data through the direct questionnaire to the respondents pertaining to the socio-economic characteristics of houseless population in Kanpur city. Having identified the respondents in prior visits in each ward (because the boundary of the ward has been kept as the smallest administrative unit and houseless household has been

taken as the smallest unit of data collection), the individual slips were used to ease the task of survey in the city. Among the total 110 wards of the Kanpur city (see Appendix 3.1 for list of wards in Kanpur city), the houseless population was found only in the 96 wards and Cantonment area while 14 wards, Armapur estate, Aerodrome and C.O.D. (Central Ordinance Depot) do not witnessed the houselessness during the survey in the city. The houseless population in the 14 wards i.e. 6 wards in Zone 2 namely Chakeri ward, Sanigawan ward, Naubasta East, Hanspuram, Pashipant Nagar and Shyam Nagar Sujat Ganj, 3 wards in Zone 3 namely Binagawan, Jaruli and Karrhi, 2 wards in Zone 5 namely Saraimita and Panki, and 3 wards in Zone 6 namely Naramau, Nankari and Awas Vikas Kalyanpur, has not been found due to their location in the outskirts of the city, newly incorporation in the city boundary limit and more rural character in the appearance.

In the present study, the houseless household has been taken as the unit of enquiry. Initially it was planned to select 30% households randomly for each ward. However, the three pilot surveys were carried out in the city during May, August and November in 2011, in these surveys, it was observed that the number of houseless households vary from time to time and place to place even within a day. The four periods of time in a day i.e. early morning (6 am to 9 am), noon (12 pm to 3 pm), evening (6 pm to 9 pm) and late night (9 pm 12 am) are taken to observe the number of houseless households, in which two periods (i.e. early morning and late night) experienced the large number of houseless households due to space available for sleeping/living after closing of shops/markets and to take rest after working as a casual workers in day time, while the other two periods (i.e. noon and evening) witnessed the small number of houseless households due to opening of shops/markets and the working hours as people mostly used to go for jobs during day time.

Moreover, some houseless households are very difficult to be identified at all, at any particular place and time due to lack of their fixed abode and hidden in nature; in every zone, the wards were visited before drawing the actual sample of households. During these visits, it was noticed that this is a highly dynamic mobile population which is difficult to track and to estimate accurately; therefore, 10% houseless households were considered as hidden. Keeping these things in mind, the sample of 25% houseless households were randomly selected for the survey. In all the wards, the number of houseless households was higher in market and commercial areas than in the residential areas of the city because at the night time, the markets used to closed down and then these people get enough elevated space in the form of ledges of shops to take the proper rest there was no body to disturb them at that time but in residential areas the houselessness is noticed comparatively less due to continuous disturbance by the local people.

The survey consisted of 1384 sampled houseless households in the Kanpur city whereas the total sampled houseless population of the city was 2353 which is summation of total sampled houseless households (1384 persons) and houseless households' family members (969 persons). The Table 3.6 provides detailed information about the number of houseless households, houseless households with family and houseless households' family members in each zone of the city, while, these information as ward wise have been given in the Appendices 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7., while, zone wise number of houseless households, houseless households' family members and total houseless population have been given in the Appendix 3.8.

Table 3.6 shows the zone-wise sampled houseless households, houseless households with family and houseless households' family members in Kanpur city. The analysis of the table reveals that the number of male and female houseless households combinedly as well as separately is higher in Zone 1 than all the zones of Kanpur city because it is the old part of the city which is characterised by high concentration of commercial activities, high population density, existence of railway station that attract petty workers in large numbers. That is why, being largest concentration of houseless population, more number of samples of houseless households (557 total houseless households in which 531 are males' houseless households and 26 are females' houseless households) has been taken from this zone.

The houseless people were living in the places not meant for human habitation like streets, pavements, road dividers, under ledges of shops or houses, under bridges, over bridges, flyovers, subways, drainage pipes, under staircases, courtyard of worship places, abandoned buildings, working places, ATMs or banks, cinema halls, parks, shrines, graveyards, hospitals, Govt. night shelters, NGO's night shelters, emergency night shelters, market corridors, premises of railway stations & bus stands, etc. The total houseless households with family and the number of houseless households' family members in this zone of the city are 24 and 96 respectively.

The Zone 2 is the largest zone of the Kanpur city in terms of area, the most of the wards of this zone are newly created and witness the characteristics of both the rural as well as urban land use, excluding the few wards like Zazmau North and Zazmau South. The Cantonment, Aerodrome and C.O.D. (Central Ordinance Depot) too are the parts of this zone. A total of 113 houseless households have been extracted, out of which 103 are the male houseless households and 10 are the female houseless households. As far as the number of houseless households with family and the number of houseless households' family members are concerned, the figures are 33 and 152 respectively in the Zone 2 of the Kanpur city.

The southern part in the mid of the Kanpur city is occupied by the Zone 3, through which the National Highway 86 (NH 86) i.e. Hamirpur Road passes. The sample taken from this zone consists of 148 houseless households, with 126 male and 22 female households. Furthermore, number of houseless households with family is 45 and the houseless households' family members are 189. A sample of 195 houseless household samples has been drawn from the Zone 4, consisting of 183 male houseless households and 12 female houseless households. The number of houseless households with family is 18, while houseless households' family members are 90. This zone is also characterised by older part of the city but it is more residential in character followed by the commercial activities and others.

Table 3.6: Zone Wise Sampled Houseless Households in Kanpur City, 2012

Zones	No. of houseless households			No. of houseless households with family			No. of houseless family members		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Zone 1	557	531	26	24	14	10	96	56	40
Zone 2	113	103	10	33	30	3	152	138	14
Zone 3	148	126	22	45	36	9	189	150	39
Zone 4	195	183	12	18	14	4	90	75	15
Zone 5	173	157	16	37	28	9	166	132	34
Zone 6	198	176	22	71	57	14	276	232	44
Total	1384	1276	108	228	179	49	969	783	186

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The Zone 5 lies in the south-western part of the city and the railway line passes through mid of this zone. The total number of samples selected from this zone is 173, comprising of 157 male houseless households as well as 16 female houseless households. No samples of houseless households have been taken from the Armapur Estate of this zone because of total absence of the houseless population in that area. Among the selected samples from this zone, the 166 are the houseless households' family members from 37 the houseless households with family.

The Zone 1 is followed by the Zone 6 comprising of total 198 houseless households; the respective figures for male and female houseless households being 176 and 22, as this zone is one of the newly settled parts of the city nearly propelling along the Grant Trunk Road which provides broad spacious pavements for living and sleeping for the houseless population. Moreover, there are 71 houseless households with family and 276 houseless households' family members in this zone.

The Table 3.6 exhibits the total houseless households taken up for the survey in the Kanpur city which is 1384, in which, the houseless households for males and females are 1276 and 108 respectively. On the other hand, the total number of sampled houseless households with family is 228 which comprise 969 houseless households' family members in the city. Now at this juncture, if the total houseless households and total houseless households' family members are added, the total sampled houseless population of Kanpur city can be obtained i.e. 2353, in which the total selected male and female houseless population is 2059 and 294 respectively (Table 3.6).

Moreover, out of the total sampled houseless households (1384), only 228 houseless households are living the life of houselessness with their family members but the strength of houseless households' family members in 228 houseless households with family is 969 in the city (see Plates 3.2 to 3.7) while all remaining houseless households (1156) are individual houseless households. That is why; most of the analysis of the data in the present study has been done on houseless household level, but analysis of the data of age, marital and literacy status, working status, monthly income and morbidities of houseless households' family members has been made separately from houseless respondents to know their status in this regard.

To accommodate the houseless population, the Government of India had made provision of Night Shelter Homes in different cities of the country. But the atmosphere/condition of the night shelter homes is so dilapidated, ramshackle, slag, dross blackened, etc. that they are not meant for human habitation because they are not neat & clean and comfortable for the houseless people that is why houseless people used to sleep on the pavement instead of sleeping in the night shelters, while night shelter homes remain the vacant. Thus, a brief summary of the infrastructure facilities available within the night shelter homes in the Kanpur city and the accommodating capacity of these night shelter homes for the houseless population have been provided zone wise in Table 3.7, while, very detailed ward wise information about them have been given in Appendix 3.9.

An examination of data given in Table 3.7 reveals that there are total 23 night shelter homes (vide Appendix 3.10 for the list of night shelter homes) in Kanpur city, in which, one-third (08) night shelter homes are located in Zone 1, followed by Zones 6 (05 night shelter homes), 4 (04 night shelter homes), 5 (03 night shelter homes), 3 (02 night shelter homes) and 2 (01 night shelter homes). On the other hand, out of the total night shelter homes (23), only 14 night shelter homes have been found in functioning state (see Plates 3.8 to 3.21) while 09 night shelter homes (see Plates 3.22 to 3.30) were either locked-up or

Plates: The Houseless Families at Different Locations in Kanpur City



3.2: Pavement along National Highway



3.3: Street of Residential Colony



3.4: Near Railway Station



3.5: Public Ground



3.6: Footpath along Road



3.7: Drainage Line

closed down due to dilapidated conditions, absence of duty in-charge, carelessness of Kanpur Nagar Nigam, etc. The maximum numbers of functioning of night shelter homes have been observed in Zone 6 (05 night shelter homes) and Zone 1 (04 night shelter homes), and remaining three Zones 3, 4 and 5 accounted only 05 functioning night shelter homes while Zone 2 does not has any single functioning shelter home.

Table 3.7: Zone Wise Status of Night Shelter Homes in Kanpur City, 2012

Zones	No. of night shelter homes	Types of night shelter homes		Functioning status of night shelter homes		Status of availability infrastructure facilities		Capacity of stay in night shelter homes	Capacity of stay in functioning night shelter homes	Capacity of stay in non-functioning night shelter homes	Actual houseless persons staying in night shelter homes
		Old	New	Yes	No	Yes	No				
Zone 1	8	3	5	4	4	4	4	340	200	140	160 (40*)
Zone 2	1	1	-	-	1	-	1	10	-	10	-
Zone 3	2	1	1	2	-	2	-	120	120	-	60 (15*)
Zone 4	4	1	3	1	3	1	3	150	30	120	-
Zone 5	3	2	-	2	1	2	1	150	110	40	84 (21*)
Zone 6	5	3	2	5	-	3	2	200	200	-	40 (10*)
Total	23	11	12	14	9	12	11	970	660	310	344 (86*)

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

* 25 % sampling have been taken during the survey for the collection of the data.

In addition to it, out of the total night shelter homes, about fifty percent (12) night shelter homes have few basic infrastructural facilities needed for houseless population in terms of cushions, blankets, carpets, pillows, quilts, drinking water, toilets, bathrooms, fans, television etc. The four night shelter homes of Zone 1 have some infrastructure facilities whereas four night shelter homes do not have anything except physical structure of building. Likewise, infrastructure facilities are available in 3 night shelter homes out of 5 shelter homes in Zone 6, in 2 night shelter homes out of 3 shelter homes in Zone 5, in 1 night shelter home out of 4 shelter homes in Zone 4, while, Zone 3 has infrastructure facilities in all its 2 night shelter homes but Zone 2 has only 1 night shelter home which is also devoid of infrastructure facilities.

All the existing night shelter homes (23) have the expected capacity of stay in the night shelter homes for 970 houseless people in the whole Kanpur city if all the available infrastructure of night shelter homes is made ready for use.

Plates: Fourteen Functioning Night Shelter Homes in Kanpur City, 2012



3.8: Dana Khori



3.9: Sutar Khana



3.10: Chatai Mohal



3.11: Sisamao South



3.12: Babu Purwa



3.13: Usmanpur



3.14: Tilak Nagar, Balbhaban



3.15: Govind Nagar North



3.16: Naseemabad



3.17: Vishnupuri



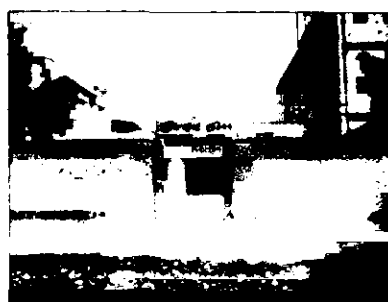
3.18: Nawab Ganj



3.19: Vijay Nagar, Kalpy Raod



3.20: Vijay Nagar, Gallah Mandi



3.21: Kakadev

Zone wise analysis of the Table 3.7 depicts that Zone 1 has the maximum capacity of stay for 340 houseless people in the night shelter homes, followed by Zone 6 (200 houseless persons) Zone 4 and Zone 5 (150 houseless persons) each, Zone 3 (120 houseless persons) and Zone 2 (10 houseless persons). But, the actual available capacity of stay in the functioning night shelter homes (14) out of the total capacity of stay in night shelter homes is recorded for 660 houseless people, because non-functioning night shelter homes (09) have the capacity of stay only for 310 houseless people. Thus, each Zone 1 and Zone 6 has the capacity of stay for 200 houseless persons in the functioning night shelter homes, whereas Zone 3 for 120 houseless persons, Zone 5 for 110 houseless persons and Zone 4 only for 30 houseless persons, however, Zone 2 does not has capacity of stay in functioning night shelter home even for single persons.

Moreover, it can be seen on the basis of sample size of twenty five percent of the houseless population, collected through field survey in night shelter homes of Kanpur city that numbers of houseless population, who are actually staying in the night shelter homes, are recorded 344 houseless people (which is four times of sample size of 86 houseless persons). Larger number of houseless people (160) actually living in night shelter homes are identified Zone 1, followed by Zone 5 (84 houseless persons), Zone 3 (60 houseless persons) and Zone 6 (40 houseless persons). However, No single houseless people has been recorded in the night shelter homes in the Zones of 2 and 4 of the city.

Therefore, it can be inferred here that only 35.46 percent, out of total capacity of stay in night shelter homes (970 houseless persons in 23 night shelter homes), has been utilised by houseless population who are actually living in the night shelter homes (344 houseless persons which is four times of sampled houseless people 86 in the night shelter homes), while, out of total capacity of stay in functioning night shelter homes (660 houseless persons in 14 night shelter homes), about fifty percent capacity of stay has been utilised by houseless population who are living in the night shelter homes in the city.

3.4.2. Contents of the survey

The comprehensive questionnaire was prepared in order to include all the possible attributes of houseless persons in Kanpur city. The details of the questions set in the questionnaire are given in Appendix 3.11. The variety and nature of information obtained about the various attributes of the houseless persons in the questionnaire may be summarised as follows:

3.4.2. a. Data about the socio-economic and demographic structure

In the socio-economic structure, the data pertaining to the following attributes of the houseless population have been collected:

Plates: Nine Non-Functioning Night Shelter Homes in Kanpur City, 2012



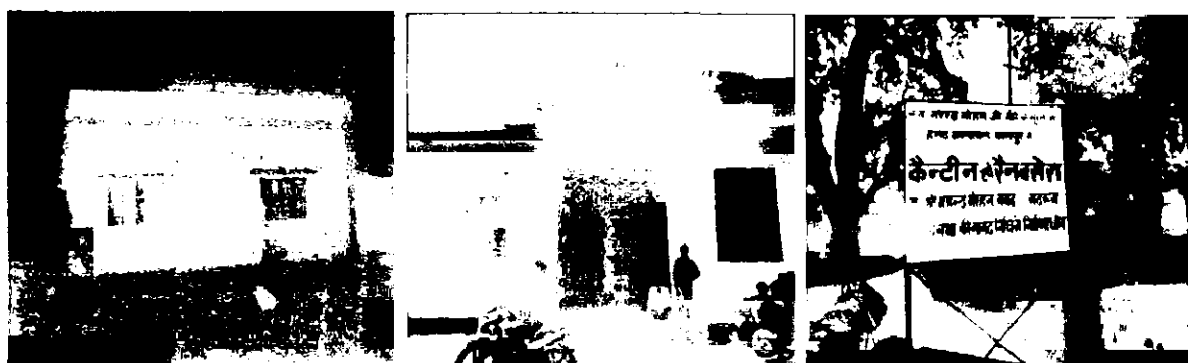
3.22: Civil Line, Bhaeroghat 3.23: Civil Line, Phool Bagh 3.24: Rai Purwa



3.25: Koper Ganj

3.26: Zazmao South

3.27: Tilak Nagar, Moti Jheel



3.28: Suther Ganj

3.29: Juhi

3.30: Tilak Nagar, Halet

- (i) Age-structure
- (ii) Sex-composition
- (iii) Marital status
- (iv) Religion and category status
- (v) Literacy and educational status
- (vi) Migratory status
- (vii) The causes of their out-migration from their places of origin and the reasons of their influx in Kanpur city
- (viii) Occupational status
- (ix) Income and expenditure status
- (x) Saving and remittance status
- (xi) Other supportive services

3.4.2. b. Information about the socio-economic attributes of houselessness

It comprised the following major items, namely:

- (i) Socio-economic causes of houselessness
- (ii) Frequency of stay in shelter
- (iii) Duration of houselessness
- (iv) Places of living of houseless people
- (v) Frequency of living places shifted
- (vi) Inclement seasons
- (vii) Reasons of Interruptions
- (viii) Daily problems faced by houseless population
- (ix) Bad habits and health status

3.4.2. c. Accessibility of houseless population in infrastructure facilities

It contained the following main items that are:

- (i) Households amenities and assets
- (ii) Sources of drinking water
- (iii) Sources of bathing
- (iv) Sources of defecation
- (v) Activities during non-working days
- (vi) Recreational activities
- (vii) Expressive ties of houseless people
- (viii) Sources of helps in emergency
- (ix) Governmental services

Age structure is an important determinant of economic, social and demographic dynamics of a country, and houseless migration, being strongly age selective, is an important determinant of the age composition of a population. Nearly 89 percent houseless persons belong to the adult age-group (19-64 years of age) while senile age-group (65 years and over) and juvenile age-group (below 19 years of age) combinedly account 11.07 percent and separately 7.23 and 3.84 percent respectively. Hence, a huge chunk of houseless population lies in working age-group (19-64 years of age) while a very little fraction is composed by the juvenile as well as senile population altogether in the city.

Since all the respondents interviewed in the survey in the Kanpur city, having the age-group of 0-70 years and above, are found directly or indirectly to be engage in some petty works barring the few exceptions i.e. beggars, mentally and physically ill people. In the juvenile age group 0-19, there is no even a single houseless female is found in the whole Kanpur city. Therefore, the juvenile age-group 0-19 is primarily dominated by the male persons that account only 3.84 percent. While, the percent of houseless male population exceeds that of houseless female population in 0-49 age-group but the position is reversed in the age-group of 49-70 and above, in which the percentage of females is higher than that of males. Thus, in the present study, a micro-level analysis of age structure of houseless population has been made with sex taken as variable

Sex selectivity is a well-known principle of for the problem of houselessness. There are strong statistical evidences which indicate that houselessness is, more often than not male selective. The proportion of houseless male population is exceedingly much greater than the houseless female population among the sampled houseless respondents in the city which proved that the facet of houselessness is male oriented problem in urban centres mostly in all countries of the world. Out of the total selected houseless respondents (1384) in the city, 91.79 percent were males and only 8.21 percent were females.

Migration is the main determining phenomenon of the problem of houselessness in the urban areas of the country because out of the total houseless households surveyed (1384 respondents), 1282 houseless respondents have been found migrants which is the more than 90% share of the total houseless respondents recorded in the Kanpur city, moreover, the greater proportion of male houseless population in the whole city is recorded by the people who have their rural background (972 persons) than their urban counter part (334 persons) while 79 persons do not know their places of origin. Thus, for the present work, the consideration of selectivity of rural to urban migration of houseless population and its demographic and socio-economic implications is not only relevant but imperative and has therefore, been given its due weightage in the present study.

Among the different qualities of a population, education perhaps is the most important indicator. Literacy is essential for economic development, social advancement and democratic growth of a country. Education gives people a sense of independent judgement and power to distinguish between good and evil, and it also plays a crucial role in decision making for the selection of destination. In developing countries, the educated persons in rural areas tend to migrate to urban places in search of better jobs. This process adds to the number of literate persons in urban places while causes a decrease in the number of literates in rural areas but it is not so because rate of illiteracy (61.422 percent) among the houseless population is much higher than literacy rate (38.58 percent). Hence, in the present study, data pertaining to literacy levels among houseless population have been collected and analysed to assess the pattern of literacy selectivity of houselessness and its socio-economic impacts on the city.

Religious and category composition of population occupies a dominant position in diverse socio-economic set-up of our country. Fanaticism and sharp category prejudice prevailing in certain parts of the area under study have developed and may continue to develop distinct pockets of population of a particular religion and category in the city. These pockets operate as centres of both centrifugal and centripetal force and the resultant movements further intensify them through their religion and category selectivity. So, information pertaining to these traits of population has been collected to find out the religious and category structure of houseless population and the ensuing socio-economic consequences of their life in the Kanpur city.

In the occupational composition of houseless population, data have been collected about the actual occupation/professional activities of the individuals to which they belonged. The questions was also asked from the respondents about whether they are working or not in any economic activity to distinguish between workers or non-workers, about number of working days, working hours, duration of joblessness, etc. The income, saving and expenditure of money are the main determinants of the socio-economic status of the life of houseless population. There are many different types of income group people to consider depending upon the mode of earning it. The main forms of expenditure done by the houseless households are the consumption of food and non-food goods, and remittances to their rural background to assist the family.

The questionnaire contained specific questions to obtain information about the use of durable goods, facilities & amenities and other supportive services availed, and the daily problems faced by the houseless respondents to unfold the facts about the general

apprehension that houseless people are living a deteriorating socio-economic standard of urban life.

House is a building for human habitation, especially one that is lived in by a family or small group of people. It is one of the three basic needs of human life and also determines the social status of people in the society. The houseless people are very mobile in nature. They have no permanent settlement; therefore, their socio-economic causes of houselessness, frequency of stay in shelter in months and/or years, duration of houselessness, the living places and how many times they have shifted the living places, interruption in sleeping, etc. are incorporated in the present study of Kanpur city.

Drinking water is the water safe enough to be consumed by humans or used with low risk of immediate or long term harm. Water has always been an important and life-sustaining drink to humans and is essential to the survival of all known organisms. However, humans have inadequate access to potable water and, therefore, have to use sources contaminated with disease vectors, pathogens or unacceptable levels of toxins or suspended solids. The poorest of the urban poor i.e. houseless people have a very limited access even to contaminated water. So, this research work focuses on the sources of water for drinking, bathing, defecation and distance of sources of water from living places.

Humans spend their time in dialing living of activities, works, relaxation, gossiping, sleeping, social duties, and leisure, the last one being free from prior commitments to physiologic or social needs, a prerequisite of recreation. Recreation is an activity of leisure, leisure being discretionary time. That is why, the recreation in modern time is assumed as sixth basic need of life (i.e. food, clothes, shelter, health, education and recreation), but in the developing countries, it is still considered as a symbol of luxury for elite class. Only one-fourth (26.32 percent) houseless population has the two basic recreational activities i.e. seeing the television and cinema. Thus, activities during non-working days and recreational activities have been taken into account in the present study.

The bad habit is a specific behaviour among the people which has the negative effects in life as well as in the society. While, disease is an abnormal condition that affects the body of humans and that causes a lot of pain, dysfunction, distress, social problems, or death to the person afflicted, or similar problems for those in contact with the person. It is found that majority of the houseless population is substance addicted in which houseless males are more addicted than the houseless females. For example, out of the total selected houseless population, the 87.34 percent houseless population has been reported as the victims of bad habits while remaining only 12.66 percent houseless persons are not engaged in any bad habits. On the other hand, more than half (i.e. 60.38 percent) houseless population prostrated

to various diseases and only 39.62 percent houseless people were physically fit and fine. Thus, bad habits, diseases and physical as well as mental disabilities among the houseless population are taken into the content of questionnaire.

At last, the questions of emotional as well as physical consequences faced by the houseless population viz., inclement seasons, expressive ties, sources of helps in emergency, governmental services, and other problems faced by them on a daily basis like negative behaviour of the people, security from unwanted things, as well as experience on occasional days, etc are incorporated in the content of investigation because these physical and emotional consequences have the pervasive influence in the life of houseless persons.

3.4.3. Experiences during field work and limitations of data

Since the time of the ancient Greeks Romans, geographers have been concerned with the Earth's surface as the home of mankind and geography as a discipline of observation. Observation is purely the most basic way of understanding the fundamental components of geography, that is why, Romans and Greek scholars who observed their surroundings and wrote about them, are today recognised as geographers. Observation has formally been included into the subject matter of geography through fieldwork. Fieldwork is very important for geographers because it contributes to geographical research and to basic understanding of the Earth's surface. Fieldwork is the collection of information outside of a laboratory, library or workplace setting. The quality of results obtained from field-based research depends on the data gathered in the field. The data, in turn, depends upon the field worker, his level of involvement, and ability to see and visualise things that other individuals visiting the area of study may fail to notice.

Fieldwork is carried out in order to gain an understanding of the everyday operations and mechanisms of a particular way of life, and the meanings that the members of that culture attribute to these everyday occurrences. The natural playing out of cultural life is the object of the fieldworker's trade and this can only be achieved by making close observations from within an environment that is natural to the observed rather than to the observer. To varying extents, the fieldworker is a stranger in the field, working in an alien environment and the extent of the strangeness experienced by the fieldworker will vary according to the specific culture under study, and the background of the fieldworker.

Thus, fieldwork is the most crucial as well as cumbersome part of the research procedure. For the present study, the entire field work was carried out during 2012. The three pilot surveys (i.e. May in summer season, August in rainy season and November in winter season, 2011) have been made to improve the original questionnaire. The researcher has gained a lot of experience in the field survey. As far as the response rate of the houseless

population was concerned, it varied from respondent to respondent because of the varying nature of houselessness/houseless i.e. mentally disabled, physically disabled, new comers to the city, old residents of the streets, individual houseless households and houseless households with family.

At the first visit and talk, it was experienced that they were not ready to tell and share anything about their life. They were very reserve and reluctant to respond the questions because they thought that if they give the responses to the asked questions like why do you live here?, how long you have lived here as houseless?, how many times you have shifted the living places?, what is the frequency of stay in shelter after months and years?, have you your own houses somewhere else?, etc., they might be uprooted, shifted and re-settled from their place of living, and might be blamed illicitly for illegal activities. Sometimes, these people behaved in a very rude manner and they stood up to fight, scolded and abused the researcher or moved away from the sight, and absolutely deny in providing any information. But the *Dukandars*⁵ and neighbours helped the researcher in convincing them about the real importance of this survey for their life. But after having clarified the basic purpose of the survey, they opened up their hearts and told all their pity-able, painful and tearful stories/realities of their life.

Nonetheless, the response rate of these houseless people has been very high because houseless population generally being poorest of urban poor are also illiterates, ignorant, migrants, petty workers, disabled, etc. and they have nothing to conceal. Thus, houseless are fairly accurate reporter, however, they may not accurately report information on socially undesirable aspects, hence, the questions were asked in more simplified manner and respondents were allowed to answer questions at their own pace. Sometimes, this survey has led to the confusion among these poor houseless people to expect in return some kind of financial help hand to hand by providing the information and some welfare oriented programme in long term. On the other hand, impression among the public regarding this survey is that it is purposeless, redundant, senseless, superfluous and irrelevant because many of the respondents complained that such types of surveys usually have been carried out and conducted several times before but nothing has come out of it upto now, and they have never led to any remedial measures for the betterment of their life. On occasion, the few houseless people claimed that the survey investigators like you, used to consume the allocated money secretly which were sanctioned by the government to the houseless population, by showing these filled-in questionnaires in fake manner.

⁵. Salesmen or owners of the shops.

Therefore, it has been felt that each relevant research should involve the participatory approach, wherein academicians, government officials, planners, and communities should be concerned in finding out the socio-economic causes of houselessness and problems faced by this down-trodden section of the society and their remedial measures too.

During the investigation of the socio-economic characteristics of the houseless population, in spite of careful planning, certain limitations arose which were not anticipated before. A random sampling is/was used to obtain information from the houseless respondents. When an actual count of the houseless is/was attempted, it was found out that this is a highly mobile population and, thus, very difficult to be tracked and estimated accurately. Because, the problem of mobility and hidden nature of houselessness affect the estimates of houseless populations as it sometimes lead the researcher to undercounts or double counts.

A general problem with the information based on secondary sources is that houseless individuals typically are 'missing cases' in Censuses, housing surveys and national statistics (FEANTSA, 1999 cf. UNCHS/Habitat, 2000: 152). Although the care is/was taken to visit all the possible areas where these people are/were likely to live, some houseless people might be left from the count and few might have remained hidden during the survey visit due to the prevalence of the darkness in the city, because this survey was mostly carried out during night time, from after sunset up to late night (upto 11: 00 pm to 12: 00 am). It is because of that from 8:00 am to 5:00 pm, houseless people used to go for work or in search of jobs and hence could not be found out during these hours of the day. Thus, there was a limitation on the side of the researcher for not going to field work alone in such situation because of the safety concerns.

Several houseless people were not ready to provide information about their socio-economic conditions and they also felt shame and shyness. There is lack of knowledge about the exact age of the houseless, because most of them being individuals without any family, except a few, they were unable to tell their real age. Hence, the surveyor had to estimate and guess their age and all by himself which was a very difficult task, thereby increasing the probability for inaccuracy about the age and other kind of information of the houseless people interviewed for the study. At the time of cross questioning & examining, researcher faced numerous problems in obtaining true information from the houseless people because most of them were illiterate and thus unable to understand what was asked? What is the purpose of this survey? What and why they are giving the information, etc. On several occasions, some drunkards, shop owners, age-old and disabled houseless created several problems in the survey. Some houseless people were reluctant to answer due to their

apprehension that the surveyor might be from police or investigation department so that he may cause inconvenience and harm to them. Some houseless people did not provide accurate information intentionally in the beginning because they thought that this survey is totally useless and, in-return, they will not get any advantage from it.

Inspite of all these problems, no effort has been spared to make this survey more comprehensive to draw the most pertinent relevant information about the houseless people. Moreover, the researcher considerably enjoyed this job at hand and interacted with many people during the course of survey which helped him in gaining experience and collecting lot of information.

3.5. Methodology

The data collected through the field work by using individual slips were scrutinised and processed in tabular forms according to the requirements of the various aspects of the study. In addition to it, during the processing of data, the attention was paid to maximum accuracy, validity, and normalcy of data after necessary checking and editing. Firstly, a short listed tabulation of data was done manually, which was later calculated and tabulated with the help of computer-aided techniques. The collected data have been analysed quantitatively as well as qualitatively for the sound research work. It is generally assumed that smaller the unit of analysis, the greater degree of reality/objectivity of the research problem. Thus, the present study is a micro level study, wherein, the boundary of the ward in Kanpur city is the smallest administrative unit and houseless household has been taken as the smallest unit of data collection while the collected data were spatially presented zone wise in the city for easy understanding facts and figures. Finally, the collected data were organised into relevant chapters.

The analysis of data has been made through systematic descriptions of the collected facts. For a deep and micro-level analysis of the differences within the houseless population with respect to socio-economic characteristics of houseless population, causes of houselessness, problems faced by houseless people and other household infrastructure facilities availed by houseless population, the processed data have been cross tabulated by selecting places of origin, category types, religion and age & sex as differentials, etc.. Moreover, the attitude of the general population towards them and governmental services utilised by the houseless population in the Kanpur city has been analysed.

3.5.1. Tools and techniques

The analytical method has been kept simple as much as possible. Mostly, averages and percentages are employed for the analysis of data. On the basis of tables and processed data,

pie-diagrams, multiple bar diagrams, and subdivided bar diagrams have been prepared to show the socio-economic characteristics of houseless population, the causes & consequences of houselessness, household infrastructural facilities & amenities and various other services availed by houseless people. The age and sex pyramids have been drawn to portray the proportion of males and females in the various age-groups. For the easy understanding of data, diagrams were prepared by using MS Excel 2003 & 2007 and Origin Programme (Version 6.1). In addition, GIS-Arc view programme (Version 3.2) has been applied to show the spatial variations of various characteristics of houseless population in Kanpur city through maps.

3.6. Significance of the study

The present research work aims to analyse the socio-economic characteristics, causes & consequences of houselessness and other household infrastructure facilities availed by the houseless people in Kanpur city. This study may be fruitfully compared with the studies regarding other categories of the people who are also poorest of the urban poor in the society like the dwellers of slum and squatter settlements, rag pickers, scavengers, beggars, cycle rickshaw pullers, labour-market people, child labour, etc. The present study will be a milestone in studying houseless population living in the informal places, not meant for human habitation, in any parts of the country in respect of socio-economic and demographic characteristics, causes of houselessness, socio-economic problems faced by houseless persons socio-economic conditions, other infrastructure facilities & services availed by them and attitude of the general population towards houseless people. The micro level data about the houseless population collected ward-wise in the whole city is very important for understanding the regional dimensions of demographic as well as socio-economic situation and its implication in the contemporary world.

The significance of this empirical and analytical study lies in the fact that it enables/will enable the planners to feel the real pulse of the problem of houselessness and needs and demands of the houseless population so that the pragmatic models can be formulated for the rest of the world. Thus, ward/village is the most suitable unit of study for planning purpose because of easy availability & frequent collection of the data, and moreover, very easy diagnostic analysis of the problem of houselessness. Most of the planning assessment and implementative decisions should be taken on the basis of these levels i.e. grass root level planning because it is the holistic approach of data analysis. It is evident from the literature review that there is a dearth of researches on houselessness particularly in the developing nations of the world like India. Though, this problem of houselessness has been continuously increasing with the rate of urbanisation through the

rural to urban migration stream to avail the good employment opportunities and other infrastructural facilities & assets in urban areas yet these people simultaneously get socio-economically marginalised.

Hence, in such a state of affairs, the need of the hour is to plan and conduct some systematic and comprehensive geographical studies which will help to generate empirical data regarding all the dimensions of houselessness at the ward, village, town, block, district, state and country level. The main purpose of the present research work is to generate interest among the readers to know the real causes of houselessness, socio-economic problems faced by houseless persons, socio-economic conditions of the houseless people, and the perception of general population about them at the micro level.

The study surely provides a base for planning to solve the socio-economic problems of houseless people who are the poorest of the urban poor and, certainly, it will also help in the formulation of policies for uprooting the menace of houselessness from the society.

Now, it is hoped that this research work would provide the perspective ways to understand the contemporary social problems of society, their real causes & consequences and then their remedial measures in a better manner. It is expected that this research will be a contribution to the grooving geographical literature in studying the culture of the poverty-stricken people.

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Chapter 4

Social Characteristics of Houseless Population

Society is a functional system in which the various constituting parts relate to each other as well as to the entire system through their fixed chores and roles. The main principle of social life is the mutual interdependence which means giving and seeking co-operation and those who are unable to give and seek co-operation are unsociable. The relationship between social and demographic structures is one of the many indicators by which the social as well as economic change procedures of a society are measured; moreover, it serves as a means for measuring the levels of socio-economic development.

Truly speaking, the initial step for starting out any scientific work regarding the social characteristics of any section of the society is to commence with the population structure, marital-status, households, families, age-composition, sex-composition, educational status, etc. There is scarcely any aspect of individual or communal life which is not affected by factors, like age, sex, social activities, political propensities, social attitude, socio-economic conditions, development & growth, etc. An individual or a group of people might be economically prosperous but it is not necessary that they would be socially developed as well. Economic development of the society is not too much significant without the social development because economic growth is a short term and dynamic phenomenon, but the upliftment of the society is a long term process. The transition of society from a state of social deprivation to that of social development may take a longer duration and cannot be measured in terms of cost and benefit.

Every human society appears similar to other human societies, basically in terms of social interaction and social relations. Along with this, many social institutions like marriage, family, brotherhood, etc., also exist in every society in one form or the other. Notwithstanding, every society faces a large number of social problems i.e. poverty, unemployment, food insecurity, malnutrition & under-nutrition, delinquency, slums, houselessness, harassment, etc. Besides these, there are some other characteristics also which are common to every society, for example, some institutional and cultural organisations viz., farmer, and industrial, tribal which are commonly seen in almost all societies, but it cannot be interpreted from this that all societies have the same characteristics. Every society, be it primitives, rural, urban, tribal or civilised, has certain characteristics which are unique to it, on the basis of which it can be identified as different

from others. A number of outcome of culture appear different in two similar societies. Thus, for the study and analysis of any society, different concepts and principles are made. Hence, the identification of population and its social characteristics will help to provide a better understanding of the community that is being served. The most striking characteristic of the houseless population is its heterogeneity like, mentally disabled, physically disabled, substance abuse, new comers to the city, old residents of the streets, houseless women, individual houseless, houseless families, poor health people, runaways & throwaways, etc. because they are both economically as well as socially deprived section of the society and the poorest of the urban poors. Therefore, the main theme of the present chapter is to give an overview of the social characteristics of the houseless population such as their age & sex composition, marital-status, caste-category & religious structure, migration status, educational levels, literacy status, etc.

4.1. Mental status of houseless respondents

The zone wise structure showing the mental status of houseless respondents¹ has been given in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Zone Wise Distribution of Houseless Respondents* by Mental Status

Zones	Male/Female	Mental	Normal	Total
Zone 1	Male	37	495	532
	Female	7	18	25
	Total	44	513	557
Zone 2	Male	15	88	103
	Female	4	6	10
	Total	19	94	113
Zone 3	Male	3	123	126
	Female	1	22	23
	Total	4	144	148
Zone 4	Male	6	177	183
	Female	3	9	12
	Total	9	186	195
Zone 5	Male	9	148	157
	Female	5	11	16
	Total	14	159	173
Zone 6	Male	5	171	176
	Female	2	20	22
	Total	7	191	198
Total	Male	75	1202	1276
	Female	22	86	108
	Total	97	1287	1384

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

* The data of houseless households' family members excluded in this table.

Analysis of data of age, sex, mental, marital and literacy status of houseless respondents has been made separately from houseless households' family members to know their status in this regard.

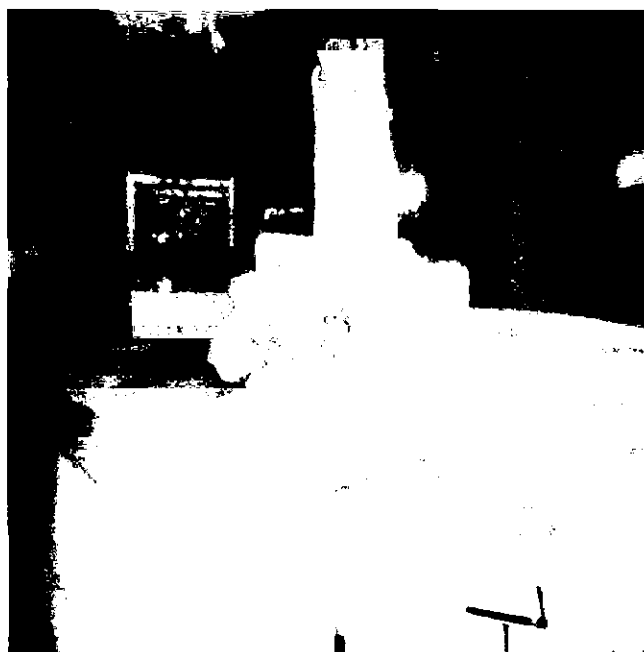
Plates: Mentally Ill Houseless Population in Kanpur City



4.1: Mental Man at Rama Devi Crossing



4.2: Mental Man at Kidwai Nagar North



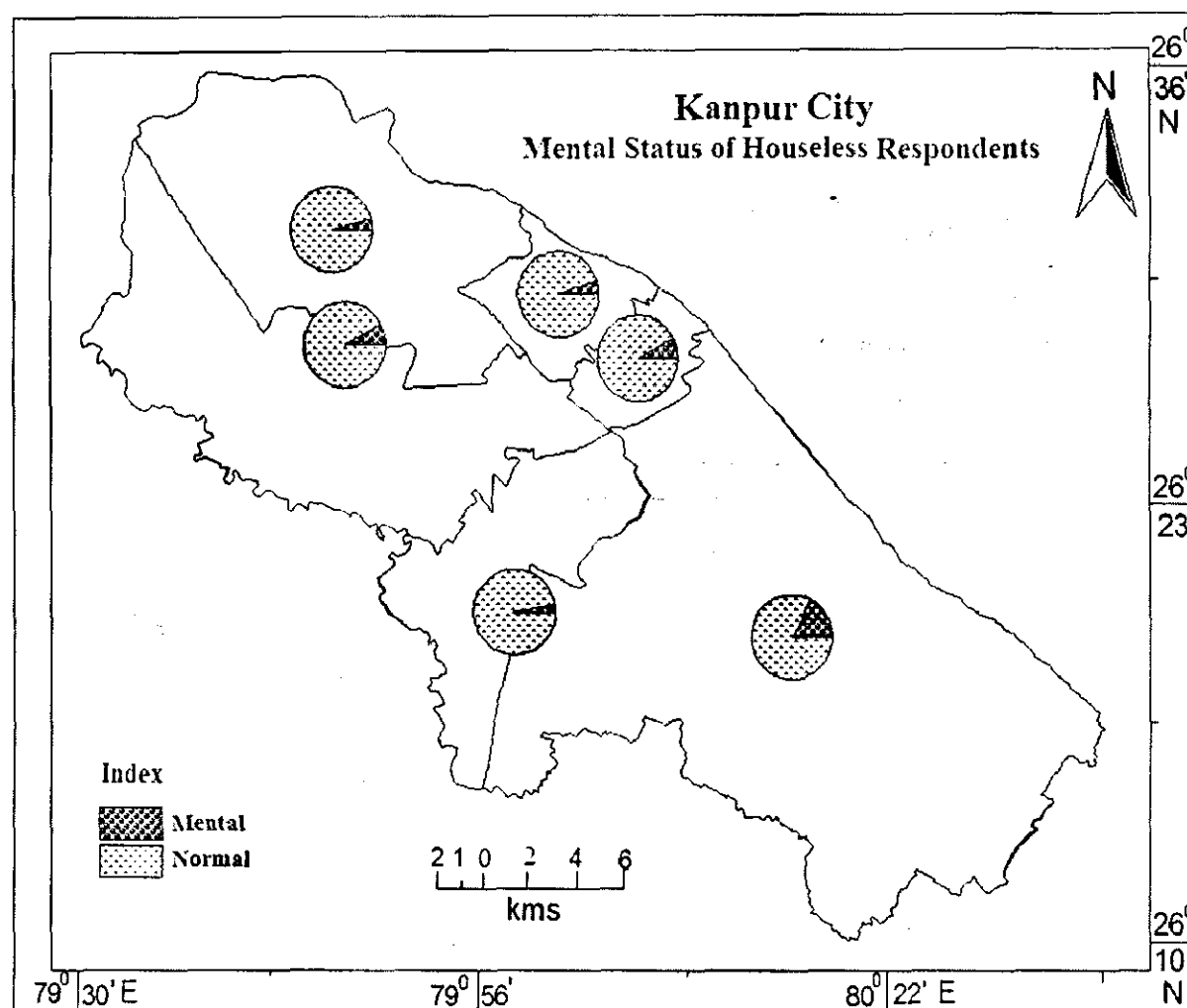
4.3: Mental Women at Binajhawar



4.4: Mental Man at Railway Station

An overall analysis of the data contained in this table depicts that the proportion of male mental houseless respondents is greater than the female mental houseless respondents in all the zones of Kanpur city. Similarly, the share of male houseless respondents exceeds that of female houseless respondents in respect of normal mental status in all the zones of the city. As it was witnessed from the collected data in the field work that the problem of houselessness is mainly dominated by the large share of male population who are easily engaged in the petty works as casual workers² in the city.

It can be observed from the Table 4.1 that out of the total selected houseless respondents (1384), 1287 houseless persons are mentally fit and fine while 97 are mentally ill (see Plates 4.1 to 4.4), further, 1276 are the houseless male respondents in which 75 houseless persons are mentally disabled while 1202 have normal conscious mind, the respective figures for the houseless female respondents are 108, 22 and 86.



Source: Based on table 4.1.

Fig. 4.1

The zone wise examination of the data regarding mental status of the houseless respondents given in Table 4.1 shows that the number of mentally disabled persons is maximum in Zone 1 and minimum in Zone 3. In Zone 1, 44 persons have been recognised as

². The workers hired on a temporary basis for work.

mentally ill whereas in Zone 3 they were identified to be only 4 (see Figure 4.1). The number of mentally ill houseless males in Zone 1 is 37 that share nearly half of the total mentally ill houseless male respondents in the whole city. Moreover, the proportion of mentally disabled male population in Zone 1 is more than one-and-half of the total mentally ill female population of the city. The total sample of houseless households taken from this zone is about forty percent (39.86 percent) of the total selected samples from all the zones of the city. If the percentage share is compared between male and female with respect to mental status of the houseless respondents in all the zones, the proportion of female houseless respondents is higher than the male houseless respondents in the city.

4.2. Settlement status of houseless population

The percent distribution of data of houseless population by their source of origin is set out in the Table 4.2. This table exhibits that the problem of houselessness in the Kanpur city has its fundamental base in the rural areas of the country because the number of houseless people with rural background in various villages markedly overstep the number of houseless people with urban background in all the zones of the city (vide Diagram 4.1).

Table 4.2: Percent Distribution of Houseless Population by Settlement Status

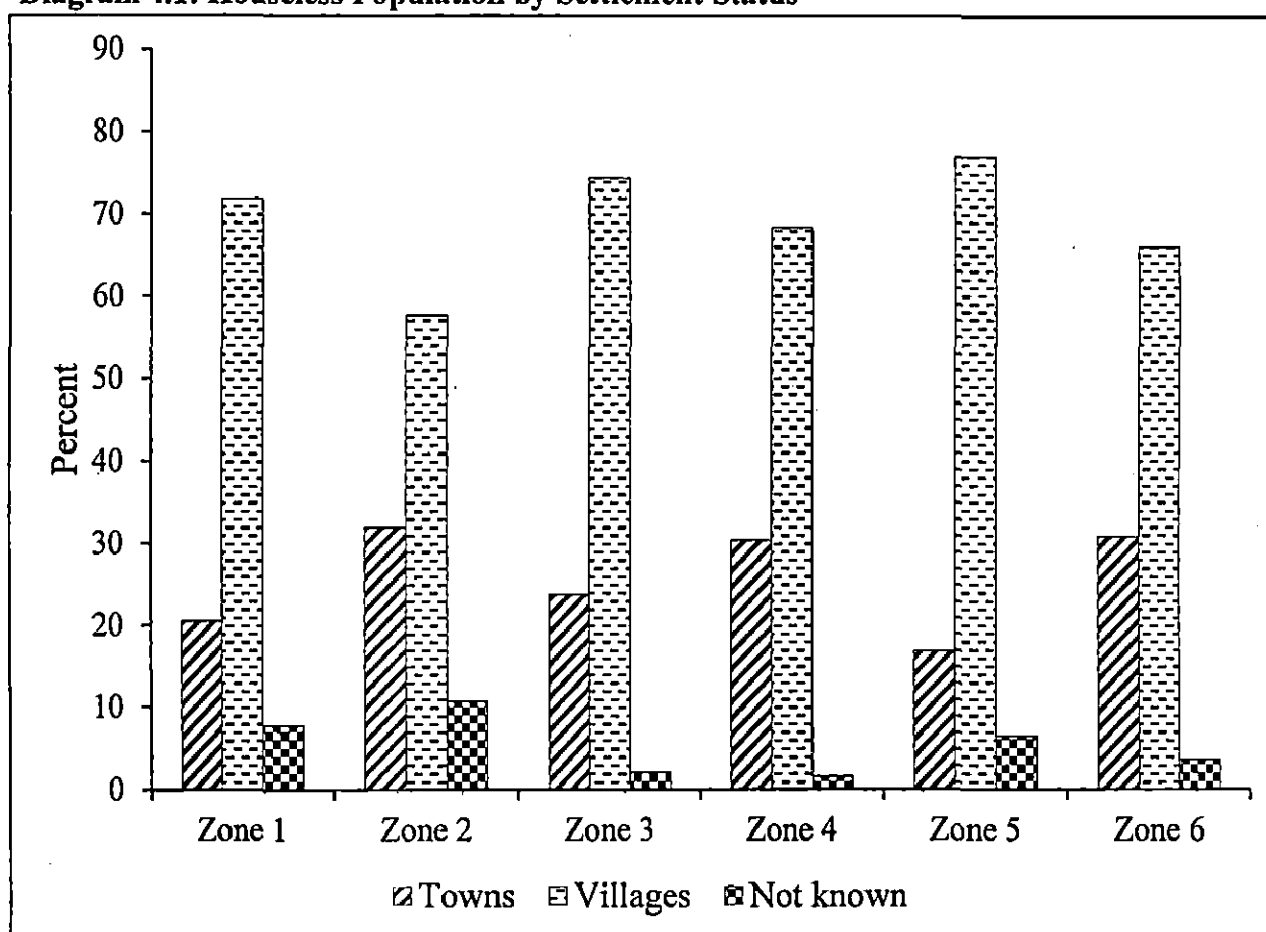
Zones	Male/Female	Settlement status of houseless population			
		Towns	Villages	Not known	Total
Zone 1	Male	19.89	73.36	6.75	100.00
	Female	33.33	37.50	29.17	100.00
	Total	20.47	71.81	7.72	100.00
Zone 2	Male	31.07	61.17	7.77	100.00
	Female	40.00	20.00	40.00	100.00
	Total	31.86	57.52	10.62	100.00
Zone 3	Male	24.60	73.81	1.59	100.00
	Female	18.18	77.27	4.55	100.00
	Total	23.65	74.32	2.03	100.00
Zone 4	Male	29.51	69.40	1.09	100.00
	Female	41.67	50.00	8.33	100.00
	Total	30.26	68.21	1.54	100.00
Zone 5	Male	14.01	80.25	5.73	100.00
	Female	43.75	43.75	12.50	100.00
	Total	16.76	76.88	6.36	100.00
Zone 6	Male	31.07	66.10	2.82	100.00
	Female	27.27	63.64	9.09	100.00
	Total	30.65	65.83	3.52	100.00
Total	Male	23.46	71.70	4.85	100.00
	Female	32.08	51.89	16.04	100.00
	Total	24.12	70.18	5.70	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The data listed in Table 4.2 demonstrates that the greater proportion of houseless male population in the whole city is recorded by the people having rural background than their

urban counterparts. The Zone 5 witnessed the highest percentage (80.25 percent) of houseless persons who have their places of origin in the villages, the percent values in descending order for Zone 3, Zone 1, Zone 4, Zone 6 and Zone 2 are 73.81, 73.36, 69.40, 66.10 and 61.17 percent respectively. As far as the source of origin of houseless female population is concerned, the percentage of houseless females from the rural background is much more than the houseless females of urban background in all the zones of the city, except in Zone 2, where the percentage of female houseless having their places of origin in urban areas remarkably exceeds the females who have their places of origin in the villages, and Zone 5, where the equal percent share is registered between the houseless females who have their places of origin in towns and villages of the country.

Diagram 4.1: Houseless Population by Settlement Status



Source: Based on Table 4.2.

A striking feature, as revealed by Table 4.2, is that houseless males overstepped the houseless females who have their places of origin in the rural area in all the zones of the city except in Zone 3 where females (77.27 percent) were found to exceed males (73.81 percent). On the contrary, houseless females in all the zones significantly outnumbered the houseless males who have their places of origin in the towns, barring Zone 3 and Zone 6 wherein the ratio of houseless females is lesser than houseless males i.e. 18.18 and 27.27 percent respectively.

The Table 4.2 also shows that the places of origin of 5.70 percent houseless persons were not known due to reluctance, fear, irritation, mental illness, etc. Further, the portion of houseless persons, whose places of origin are not known, is predominated by the houseless females (16.04 percent) over the houseless males (4.85 percent) in the whole city. The houseless people, whose places of origin are not known, are witnessed maximum in Zone 2 (10.62 percent) and minimum in Zone 4 (1.54 percent). The percent of houseless females whose places of origin are unknown is highest in Zone 2 (40.00 %) and lowest in Zone 3 (4.55 %) but their proportion has been higher than houseless males in each zones of the city.

4.3. Age and sex-composition of houseless population

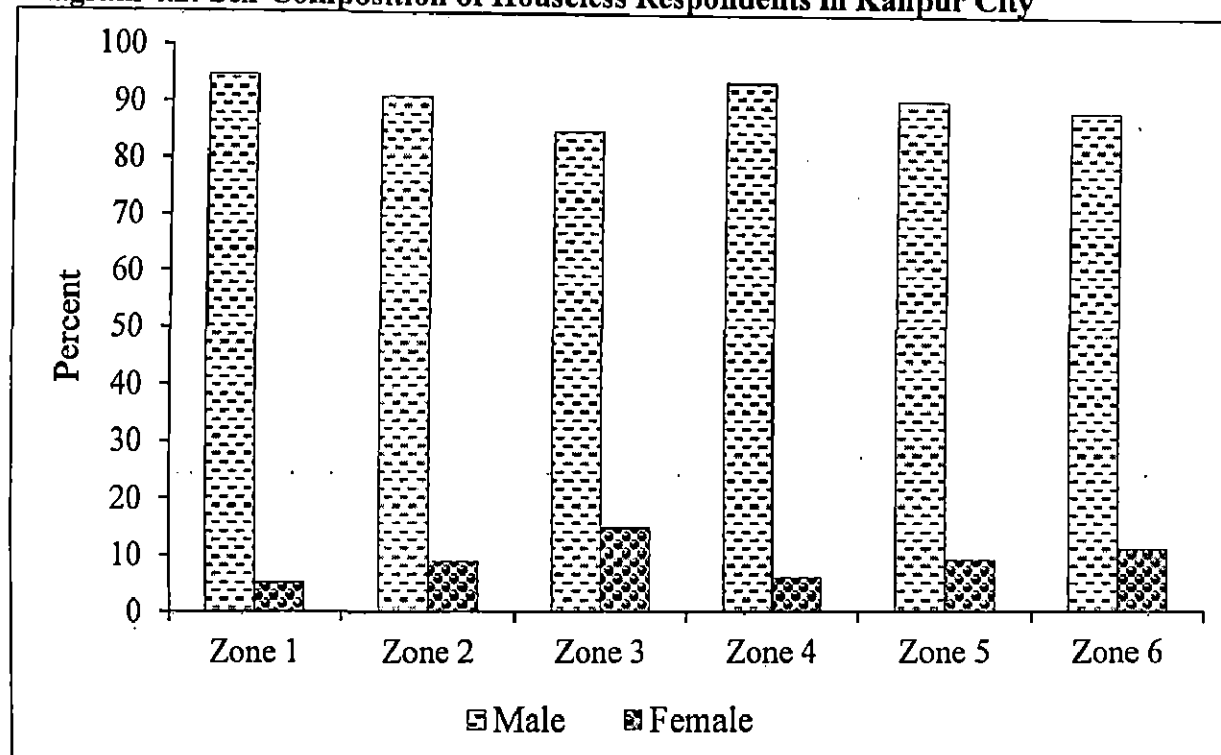
Population composition is primarily of three kinds, namely biological, cultural and economic composition, in which, age and sex composition of population is one of the kind of biological composition. In the presents study, the age and sex composition of houseless population has been taken into consideration to know that in which age-groups, most of the houseless population comes and in which sex-category they fall. Because the changes in the characteristics of age and sex not only determine demographic characteristics (like birth and death rates, marital status, medical, housing and educational needs, internal and international migration), but also influence socio-economic and political structure of a country (Raj 2012: 246).

4.3.1. Sex-composition of houseless respondents

Table 4.3 provides the zone wise data about the sex-composition of houseless respondents houseless family members and houseless households in Kanpur City. An analysis of the data given in Table 4.3 reveals that the proportion of houseless male respondents is exceedingly much greater than the houseless female respondents among the sampled houseless respondents in the city which proved that the facet of houselessness is a male-oriented problem in urban centres mostly in all the countries of the world. Out of the total selected houseless respondents (1384) in the city, 91.79 percent were males and only 8.21 percent were females.

The zone wise analysis of the sex-composition of houseless respondents also exhibit that the ratio of houseless males exceeds the houseless females. The maximum range of variation in the sex-composition of houseless respondents was identified between Zone 1 and Zone 3 which ranges from 94.76 percent (the highest) to 85.14 percent (the lowest) while the percent share of sex-composition of houseless respondents in all the zones lies in between (vide Diagram 4.2).

Diagram 4.2: Sex-Composition of Houseless Respondents in Kanpur City



Source: Based on Table 4.3.

4.3.2. Sex-composition of houseless households' family members

Further analysis of the data presented in the Table 4.3 depicts that the sex-composition of houseless family members was recorded comparatively moderate or a little bit favourable in comparison to sex-composition of houseless respondents as well as sex-composition of houseless households (sum of total number of respondents and houseless family members), and even, the ratio of females overstepped the males wherein males accounted the 46.18 percent and females recorded the 53.82 percent.

Table 4.3: Zone Wise Percent Distribution of Sex-Composition of Houseless Population

Zones	Sex-composition of houseless respondents		Sex-composition of houseless households' family members		Sex-composition of houseless households	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Zone 1	94.76	5.24	58.33	41.67	88.66	11.34
Zone 2	91.07	8.93	39.74	60.26	61.60	38.40
Zone 3	85.14	14.86	41.80	58.20	60.83	39.17
Zone 4	93.85	6.15	44.44	55.56	78.25	21.75
Zone 5	90.75	9.25	52.73	47.27	72.19	27.81
Zone 6	88.89	11.11	45.13	54.87	63.37	36.63
Total	91.79	8.21	46.18	53.82	72.35	27.65

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

It may also be seen from the table that in the sex-composition among the houseless family members, the proportion of males is higher than females in two zones of the city namely, Zone 1 and Zone 5 which account to 58.33 and 52.73 percent respectively. A very

few number of houseless families have been found during the field survey in Zone 1, which is a very congested zone of the city due to concentration of administrative, commercial, industrial/manufacturing enterprises activities and posh residential area, and thus attracts a large number of male in-migrants for casual works who used to leave their families at their places of origin in the villages, towns and outskirts of Kanpur city, because of high rent of housing, low income, the lack of enough spaces to live with their family on the pavements due to heavy traffic congestion and narrowness of the roads and streets, etc.

4.3.3. Sex-composition of houseless households

The Table 4.3 shows that the sex-composition of the houseless households, identified either as houseless respondents or houseless family member, is male dominated. The proportion of males was 72.35 percent and of females was 27.65 percent. All the zones of Kanpur city recorded more than nearly two-third share of males as compared to the females. However the proportion of sex-composition of total houseless households occupies the mid-position between the ratios of sex-composition of houseless respondents and houseless family members in the study area.

4.3.4. Age-structure of houseless respondents

The zone-wise structure of age-composition of houseless respondents is given in Table 4.4. The age-structure is one of the most basic characteristics of a population. Age difference may create social and economic differences because all aspects of an individual's or community's life like social attitude, economic activities, political propensities and so on and so forth, are affected by age (Clark, 1972: 66). Thus, the age structure very much influences the socio-economic life of a nation (Ghosh, 1985: 91). The nations which have large share of young population (0-19 years of age) that is already non-productive, need to be fed, clothed, housed and educated, and the nations with older population (65 and above) need to invest more in the health sector. The age structure can also be used to help predict potential political issues. For example, the rapid growth of adult population, unable to find employment opportunities, can lead to unrest in the country. It would commonly be expected that children below 19 years and people aged above 55 years would be over-represented in the destitute population of any community because of their inability to support themselves but it is not true in this selected problem of houselessness. That's why understanding a population's age-composition yields insights into changing phenomena and highlights future socio-economic challenges.

xx Percent Distribution of Houseless Respondents* in Kanpur City

	Age-groups of houseless respondents											
	0-14	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65-
	0.19	5.07	6.38	6.94	12.20	12.95	15.57	13.13	10.13	5.82	5.82	2.0
	-	-	-	4.00	8.00	16.00	28.00	12.00	8.00	4.00	4.00	-
	0.18	4.84	6.09	6.81	12.01	13.08	16.13	13.08	10.04	5.73	5.73	1.9
	0.97	2.91	6.80	11.65	11.65	14.56	12.62	18.45	5.83	1.94	8.74	0.9
	-	-	-	-	10.00	10.00	20.00	-	20.00	-	10.00	20.0
	0.88	2.65	6.19	10.62	11.50	14.16	13.27	16.81	7.08	1.77	8.85	2.6
	-	4.00	8.80	8.00	12.80	10.40	20.80	11.20	9.60	4.00	7.20	-
	-	-	4.55	9.09	4.55	4.55	4.55	18.18	13.64	13.64	18.18	4.5
	-	3.40	8.16	8.16	11.56	9.52	18.37	12.24	10.20	5.44	8.84	0.6
	0.55	0.55	6.01	9.29	6.56	16.39	13.66	7.65	8.20	8.20	9.84	4.3
	-	-	-	-	9.09	9.09	27.27	27.27	-	-	9.09	-
	0.52	0.52	5.67	8.76	6.70	15.98	14.43	8.76	7.73	7.73	9.79	4.1
	-	2.55	7.01	12.10	10.19	14.65	14.01	14.65	10.19	5.10	5.73	0.6
	-	-	-	6.25	12.50	12.50	12.50	25.00	-	-	18.75	6.2
	-	2.31	6.36	11.56	10.40	14.45	13.87	15.61	9.25	4.62	6.94	1.1
	-	5.68	8.52	11.36	10.80	14.20	14.77	13.64	6.25	6.25	1.70	3.4
	-	-	-	9.09	4.55	4.55	4.55	18.18	9.09	13.64	9.09	9.0
	-	5.05	7.58	11.11	10.10	13.13	13.64	14.14	6.57	7.07	2.53	4.0
	0.23	3.92	6.97	9.01	10.96	13.70	15.27	12.84	8.93	5.64	6.19	2.1
	-	-	0.94	5.66	7.55	9.43	15.09	16.98	8.49	6.60	11.32	5.6
	0.22	3.62	6.51	8.75	10.70	13.38	15.26	13.16	8.89	5.71	6.58	2.3

ulation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

houseless households' family members excluded in this table.

It may be seen from the Table 4.4 that a huge chunk of houseless respondents lies in working age-group (20-64 years of age) while a very little fraction is composed by the juvenile as well as senile population altogether in the city. Since all the respondents interviewed during the survey in the Kanpur city, having the age-group of 0-70 years and above, are found directly or indirectly to be engaged in some petty works barring the few exceptions i.e. beggars, mentally and physically ill people, etc.

A notable feature is revealed in Table 4.4, that nearly 89 percent houseless persons belong to the adult age-group (20-64 years of age) while senile age-group (65 years and over) and juvenile age-group (below 19 years of age) combinedly account to 11.07 percent and separately 7.23 and 3.84 percent respectively. (If juvenile age-group is taken from 0-14 years of age and senile age-group above 60 years of age, then they will compose 14.03 percent combinedly and 0.22 and 13.81 percent share of houseless respondents respectively, while adult age-group (15 to 59 years) will constitute 85.97 proportion of houseless respondents). The highest proportion of persons that is about 52.50 percent (more than half population) has been recorded in the age-group of 30-49. The percent share of females in all age-groups is witnessed lower than the males, excluding the five quinquennial age-groups of 45-49, 55-59, 60-64, 65-69 and above 70 years. Further analysis of the data shown in this table discloses the fact that in the juvenile age-group (0-19 years of age), not even a single houseless female is found in the whole Kanpur city. Therefore, the juvenile age-group 0-19 is primarily dominated by the males that account only 3.84 percent. Another remarkable characteristic noted in the senile age-group (65 and above) is that females, instead of their absence in juvenile age-group, are overriding the males in all the zones of the city.

Zone wise analysis of age-structure of houseless respondents reveals that the maximum share of juvenile population (0-19 years of age) was recorded in Zone 1 (5.02 percent) and Zone 6 (5.05 percent), followed by Zones 2 (3.53 percent), 3 (3.40 percent) 5 (2.31 percent) and 4 (1.04 percent). While, greater proportion of the senile population (65 years and above) was witnessed in Zone 4 (13.40 percent), followed by Zones 6 (9.09 percent), 1 (6.27 percent), 2 (6.19 percent), 5 (5.63 percent) and 3 (4.08 percent). Thus, data given in this table discloses that the highest ratio of dependent houseless respondents (i.e. juvenile and senile houseless persons) was observed in Zone 4 (14.44 percent) while the lowest in Zone 5 (6.94 percent). It means that a huge proportion of houseless respondents fall under the working age-group (20-

64 years of age) in the Zone 5 (93.06 percent) and comparatively less share was registered in Zone 4 (85.56 percent) in comparison to other zones of the city.

4.3.5. Age-structure of houseless households' family members

Table 4.5 gives zone-wise percent distribution of age-composition of houseless households' family members in Kanpur city. This table provides the information that a large proportion of houseless households' family members lies in the juvenile age-group (0-19 years of age) which accounted nearly 59.00 percent out of the total houseless households' family members. While a very little fraction (4.55 percent) is composed by the senile age-group population (above 65 years of age).

Hence, the total dependency ratio³ (sum of juvenile and senile population) among houseless households' family members is 63.24 percent. The working age-group population (20-64 years of age) composed only 36.76 percent among the family members wherein the two decennial or four quinquennial age-groups (from 20-39 years of age) shared the 27.27 percent out of the total working age-group population among the houseless households' family members. This table also reveals the fact that the dependency ratio among the juvenile age-group (0-19 years of age) was witnessed more among the males than the females while more or less equivalent dependency was observed among the male-female senile age-group (Above 65 years of age) in the city.

Further, the examination of the data given in Table 4.5 shows that all the zones of the city account for more than fifty percent juvenile population in comparison to combine proportion of adult and senile population in the houseless families. The juvenile population was recorded highest (63.04 percentage) in Zone 5, and lowest (53.12 percent) in Zone 1. The percentage of adult population varies from lowest (32.11 percent) in Zone 5 to highest (40.39 percent) in Zone 2. It is true, however, that the senile population was recorded lower in percent, but from social point of view, it is very hard to live on the streets at this age of life (above 65 years) for bread and for the survival. The total dependency ratio (juvenile plus senile population) among the houseless households' family members in all the zones of city was recorded more than 60 percent, barring the Zone 2 which accounted very close to 60 percent i.e. 59.61 percent.

³. Dependency ratio refers to the age distribution of the population between youth plus aged population divided by the adult population and then multiplied by 100.

Sex Percent Distribution of Houseless Households' Family Members* in Kanpur City

Age-group of houseless households' family members													
0-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65-69
17.86	5.36	14.29	17.86	8.93	10.71	5.36	-	3.57	-	3.57	1.79	1.79	-
5.00	10.00	10.00	25.00	17.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	7.50	5.00	2.50	-	2.50
12.50	7.29	12.50	20.83	12.50	7.29	4.17	1.04	3.13	3.13	4.17	2.08	1.04	1.04
16.67	11.67	10.00	8.33	8.33	11.67	10.00	6.67	5.00	3.33	1.67	1.67	-	1.67
13.19	23.08	16.48	8.79	5.49	8.79	6.59	7.69	1.10	3.30	-	1.10	1.10	2.20
14.57	18.54	13.91	8.61	6.62	9.93	7.95	7.28	2.65	3.31	0.66	1.32	0.66	1.99
16.46	12.66	12.66	8.86	11.39	6.33	5.06	7.59	5.06	-	2.53	3.80	-	1.27
13.64	25.45	18.18	8.18	10.91	3.64	5.45	2.73	1.82	0.91	2.73	1.82	-	1.82
14.81	20.11	15.87	8.47	11.11	4.76	5.29	4.76	3.17	0.53	2.65	2.65	-	1.59
15.00	17.50	10.00	17.50	15.00	10.00	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	-	-	-	-
8.00	16.00	12.00	16.00	14.00	14.00	2.00	4.00	4.00	-	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
11.11	16.67	11.11	16.67	14.44	12.22	2.22	3.33	3.33	1.11	1.11	1.11	1.11	1.11
16.09	21.84	14.94	10.34	6.90	4.60	11.49	6.90	1.15	2.30	-	-	-	-
12.82	19.23	17.95	12.82	3.85	5.13	8.97	3.85	2.56	2.56	2.56	1.28	-	2.56
14.55	20.61	16.36	11.52	5.45	4.85	10.30	5.45	1.82	2.42	1.21	0.61	-	1.21
11.2	16.00	20.00	16.00	10.40	7.20	2.40	4.00	4.00	3.20	1.60	0.80	1.60	-
7.24	13.16	20.39	17.11	12.5	6.58	2.63	5.26	5.26	1.32	2.63	1.97	0.66	0.66
9.03	14.44	20.22	16.61	11.55	6.86	2.53	4.69	4.69	2.17	2.17	1.44	1.08	0.36
14.99	14.77	14.77	12.98	9.84	7.83	6.04	4.92	3.58	2.01	1.57	1.34	0.67	0.45
10.36	18.43	17.27	13.63	10.17	6.53	4.80	4.61	3.07	2.11	2.3	1.73	0.58	1.73
12.50	16.74	16.12	13.33	10.02	7.13	5.37	4.75	3.31	2.07	1.96	1.55	0.62	1.14

lation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

ouseless respondents excluded in this table.

4.3.6. Age and sex structure of houseless respondents

A detailed account of age-sex structure of houseless respondents in the city is set out in the Table 4.6. This table provides the significant information that the percent of houseless male respondents exceeds that of houseless female respondents in 0-49 age-group. But the position is reversed in the age-group of 49-70 and above, in which the percentage of females is higher than that of males. Within the houseless female respondents, the age-group distribution is quite uneven; nonetheless in the quinquennial age-groups, from 30-49 years of age, both male and female, are prevailing in the city. In Zone 1, the age-group 35-44 records 44.00 percent female and 28.52 percent male population, this is quite lower than the female. In the senile age-group of 70 and above, females again surpass the males by accounting 16.00 percent against the 3.75 percent, but in the age-groups of 0-24 and 65-69, no single female houseless respondents has been reported. In the five quinquennial age-groups, namely 40-44, 50-54, 60-64, 65-69 and above the 70, percentage share of female is transcending over the proportion of male in Zone 2 while zero percentage is witnessed in the age-groups of 0-29, 45-49 and 55-59 for the female.

Therefore, an examination of Table 4.6 indicates that, more or less, the similar percent distribution of age-sex composition of houseless respondents has been observed in Zones 3, 4, 5 and 6, as experienced in Zones 1 and 2. The two striking features need to be noted here are that houseless males in the three zones (i.e. 3, 5 and 6) do not make even a single entry in the age-group of 0-14 whereas remaining three zones (i.e. 1, 2 and 4) combinedly account only 1.71 percent in the whole city. Secondly, the decennial age-group 40-49 of male composes a large section of population than any other decennial age-group of population in the city (vide Diagram 4.3).

Thus, the age & sex pyramids of houseless respondents represents the condition of much higher level of socio-economic development in the study area, even greater than industrialised nations where slightly more than one-fourth of the population falls in the juvenile age-group, and substantially more persons are recorded in the middle-age and old-age-groups. But in this case, only 4.15 percent juvenile age-group (0-19 years of age) is only composed by males while 6.34 percent males and 17.92 percent females constituted the senile age-group (above 65 years of age), and all remaining male and female houseless respondents is lying under working age-groups. Nonetheless, it does mean that this section of population shows the high socio-economic conditions rather than poorest socio-economic profile of the society.

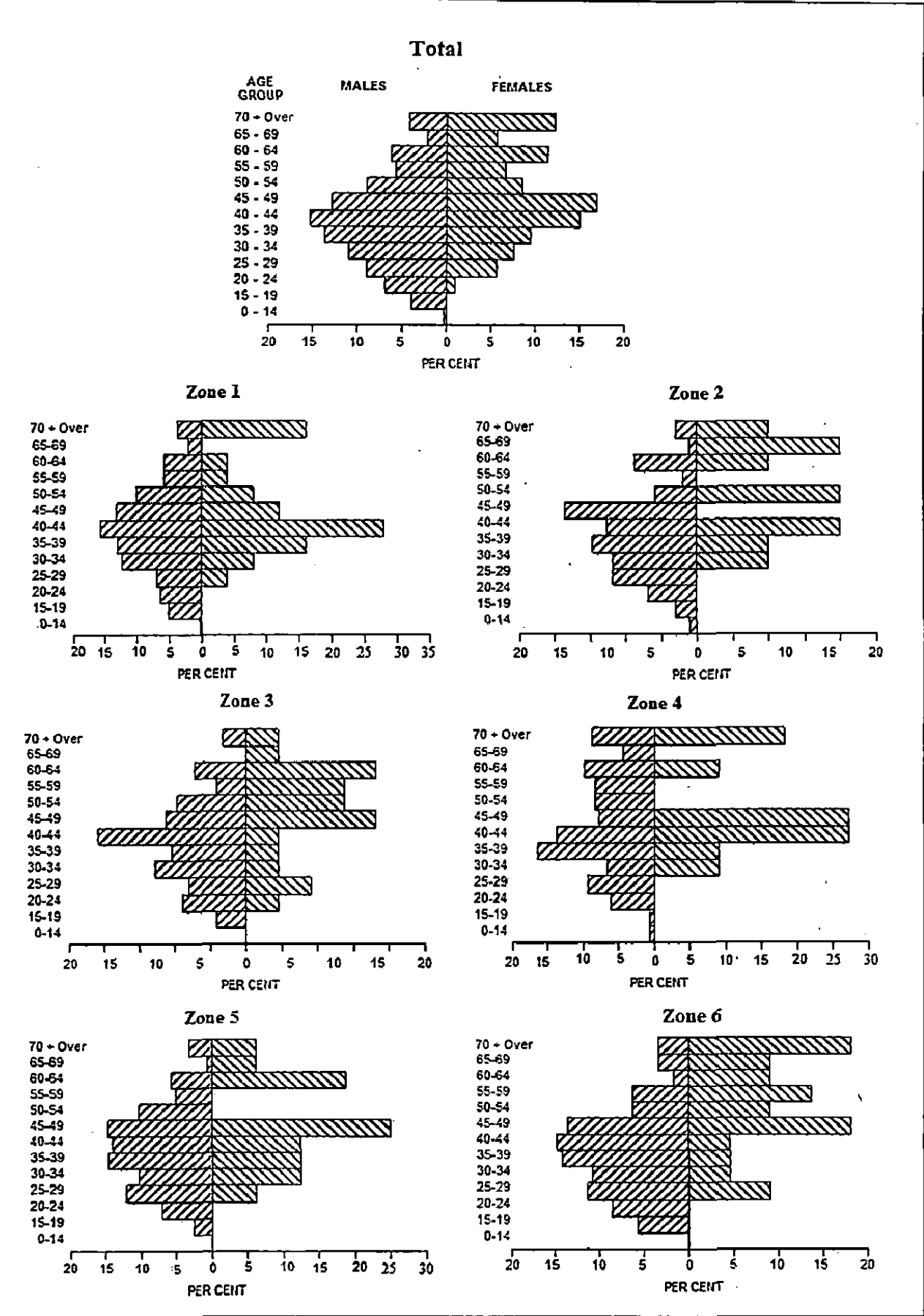
Wise Age-Sex Composition of Houseless Respondents* in Kanpur City

	Zone 1		Zone 2		Zone 3		Zone 4		Zone 5		Zone 6	
Age	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
19	-	0.97	-	-	-	-	0.55	-	-	-	-	-
27	-	2.91	-	4.00	-	-	0.55	-	2.55	-	5.68	-
38	-	6.80	-	8.80	4.55	6.01	-	7.01	-	8.52	-	-
49	4.00	11.65	-	8.00	9.09	9.29	-	12.10	6.25	11.36	9.09	-
50	8.00	11.65	10.00	12.80	4.55	6.56	9.09	10.19	12.50	10.80	4.55	-
55	16.00	14.56	10.00	10.40	4.55	16.39	9.09	14.65	12.50	14.20	4.55	-
57	28.00	12.62	20.00	20.80	4.55	13.66	27.27	14.01	12.50	14.77	4.55	-
63	12.00	18.45	-	11.20	18.18	7.65	27.27	14.65	25.00	13.64	18.18	-
63	8.00	5.83	20.00	9.60	13.64	8.20	-	10.19	-	6.25	9.09	-
82	4.00	1.94	-	4.00	13.64	8.20	-	5.10	-	6.25	13.64	-
82	4.00	8.74	10.00	7.20	18.18	9.84	9.09	5.73	18.75	1.70	9.09	-
96	-	0.97	20.00	-	4.55	4.37	-	0.64	6.25	3.41	9.09	-
75	16.00	2.91	10.00	3.20	4.55	8.74	18.18	3.18	6.25	3.41	18.18	-
100	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

* Data is based on primary survey by the researcher.

* Houseless households' family members excluded in this table.

Diagram 4.3: Age & Sex Pyramids of Houseless Respondents in Kanpur City



source: Based on table 4.6.

4.3.7. Age and sex structure of houseless households' family members

Table 4.7 provides information about the comparative picture of the age-sex distribution of male and female houseless households' family members. An analysis of the data in Table 4.7 depicts that a significant proportion is occupied by the juvenile age-group (0-19 years of age) population and very small fraction by the senile age-group (above 65 years of age), while the adult age-group (20-64 years of age) population has its moderate share in the percentage of houseless households' family members.

A further analysis of data in Table 4.7 shows that for the males as well as for the females in the houseless families, the percent distribution of age-groups of houseless households' family members is quite moderate rather than the age-groups distribution of houseless respondents given in Table 4.6. An important inference that may be drawn from the analysis of Table 4.7 is that the juvenile age-group (0-19 years of age) accounts 58.60 percent that is the highest proportion over the percentage of adult age-group (36.84 percent) and senile age-group (4.56 percent) combinedly. (if juvenile age-group is taken from 0-14 years of age and senile age-group above 60 years of age, then they will compose 45.36 and 5.17 percent share of houseless family members respectively, while adult age-group (15 to 59 years) will constitute 49.47 proportion of houseless households' family members).

The male-female break-up of the data in Table 4.7 exhibits that female juvenile age-group (0-19) exceeds the male juvenile age-group because the percentage of females and males is 59.69 and 57.51 percent respectively. But, the reversed situation has been recorded in the adult age-group of 20-64, wherein males account 37.80 percent, while females evidence 35.90 percent. Similar trend has been followed in the senile age-group (above 65 years of age), in which respective figures for males and females are 4.70 and 4.42 percent.

Another important inference that may be drawn from the Table 4.7 is that within the senile age-group, houseless households' family members of above 70 age-groups experienced the higher proportion than the houseless households' family members of age-group 65-69 in all the zones of Kanpur city, barring Zone 2 in which females of above 70 years of age account less than females of 65-69 years of age. At the same time, as within the adult age-group (20-64 years of age), the two decennial age-groups i.e. 20-29 and 30-39, witnessed the noteworthy fraction of houseless households' family members both for male and female in the whole city (vide Diagram 4.4).

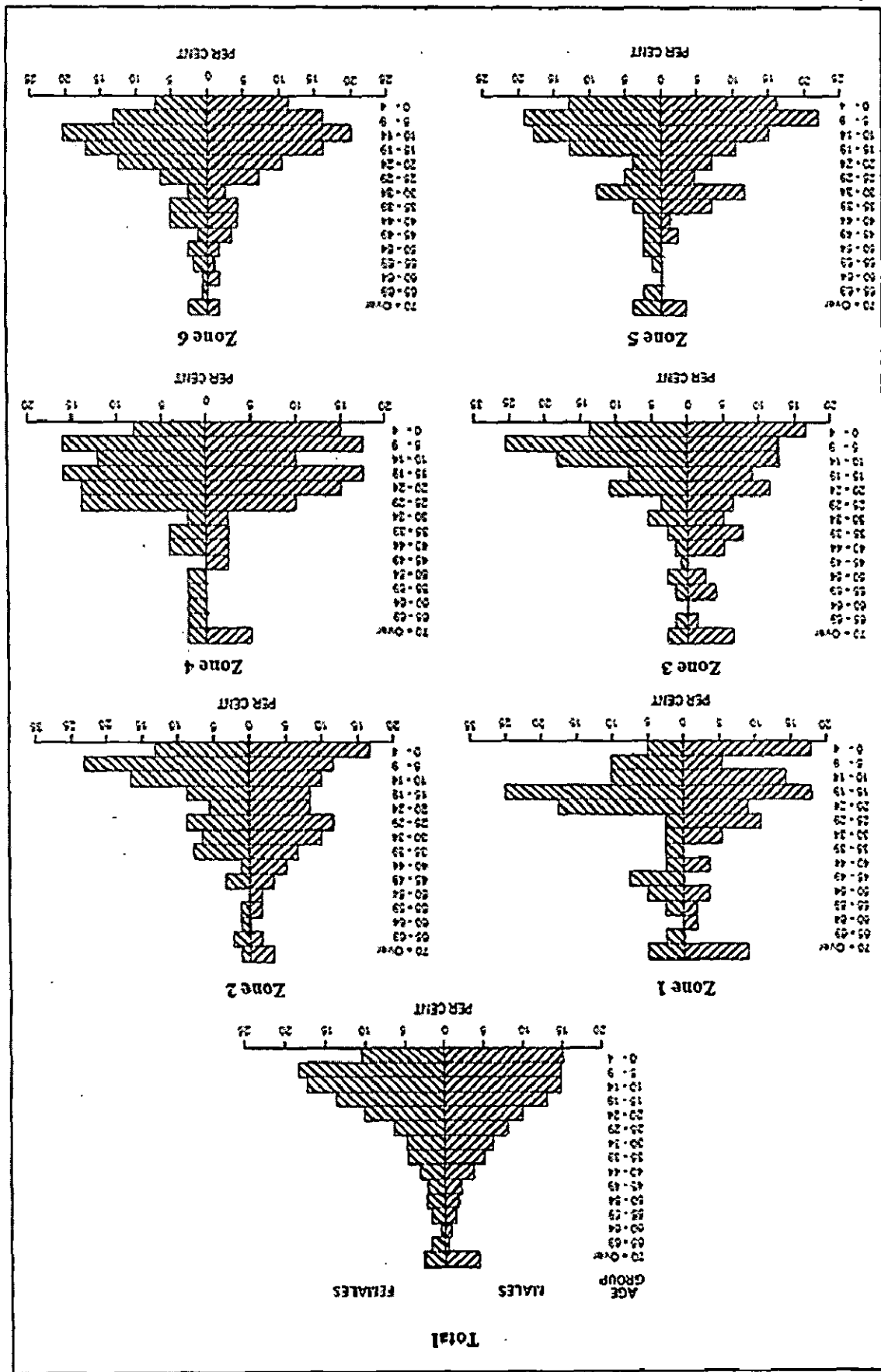
Table 4.7: Zone Wise Age-Sex Composition of Houseless Households' Family Members* in Kanpur City

Age Group	Zone 1		Zone 2		Zone 3		Zone 4		Zone 5		Zone 6		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
0-4	17.86	5.00	16.67	13.19	16.46	13.64	15.00	8.00	16.09	12.82	11.20	7.24	14.99	10.36
5-9	5.36	10.00	11.67	23.08	12.66	25.45	17.50	16.00	21.84	19.23	16.00	13.16	14.77	18.43
10-14	14.29	10.00	10.00	16.48	12.66	18.18	10.00	12.00	14.94	17.95	20.00	20.39	14.77	17.27
15-19	17.86	25.00	8.33	8.79	8.86	8.18	17.50	16.00	10.34	12.82	16.00	17.11	12.98	13.63
20-24	8.93	17.50	8.33	5.49	11.39	10.91	15.00	14.00	6.90	3.85	10.40	12.50	9.84	10.17
25-29	10.71	2.50	11.67	8.79	6.33	3.64	10.00	14.00	4.60	5.13	7.20	6.58	7.83	6.53
30-34	5.36	2.50	10.00	6.59	5.06	5.45	2.50	2.00	11.49	8.97	2.40	2.63	6.04	4.80
35-39	-	2.50	6.67	7.69	7.59	2.73	2.50	4.00	6.90	3.85	4.00	5.26	4.92	4.61
40-44	3.57	2.50	5.00	1.10	5.06	1.82	2.50	4.00	1.15	2.56	4.00	5.26	3.58	3.07
45-49	-	7.50	3.33	3.30	-	0.91	2.50	-	2.30	2.56	3.20	1.32	2.01	2.11
50-54	3.57	5.00	1.67	-	2.53	2.73	-	2.00	-	2.56	1.60	2.63	1.57	2.30
55-59	1.79	2.50	1.67	1.10	3.80	1.82	-	2.00	-	1.28	0.80	1.97	1.34	1.73
60-64	1.79	-	-	1.10	-	-	-	2.00	-	-	1.60	0.66	0.67	0.58
65-69	-	2.50	1.67	2.20	1.27	1.82	-	2.00	-	2.56	-	0.66	0.45	1.73
Over + 70	8.93	5.00	3.33	1.10	6.33	2.73	5.00	2.00	3.45	3.85	1.60	2.63	4.25	2.69
All	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

* The data of houseless respondents excluded in this table.

Diagram 4.4: Age & Sex Pyramids of Houseless Households' Family Members



Source: Based on table 4.7.

Thus, age & sex pyramids of houseless households' family members portrays the deprived or much lower level of socio-economic development of the population in the present unit of study, just like situation of developing countries where more than forty percent of the population is comprised of children under juvenile age-groups and considerably larger in working age-groups and much lesser in senile age-groups. The poorest countries like poorest families have the most children; and in both the cases that is an important reason why they are poor (Davis, 1965: 17-31). However, the houselessness is a situation of the poorest section of the urban poor in the contemporary society.

4.4. Marital status

The marital status of population is one of the major determinants to perform various activities and also presents the picture of sex differential in the work participation rate in the Indian society. For example, the female employment is influenced by their marital status, as among women who are single, the rate of work participation corresponds rather well to that for males, while, females who are married and living with their husbands have lower work participation rates and on the contrary, either those who are married but not living with their husbands or those who are widowed, divorced, separated, their participation rates tend to be noticeably higher than males.

4.4.1. Marital status of houseless respondents

The data regarding the marital-status of houseless respondents by sex have been presented in the Table 4.8. It would be seen that nearly fifty percent houseless respondents is found to be married, followed by the un-married, widowed and separated or divorced population. The ratios of married and un-married males are one-and-half times greater than that of the females. However, the opposite situation has been observed in the marital-status of widowed and separated/divorced, wherein the percent share of females has been found almost four times greater than the males in the widowed category, while the ratio of separated or divorced females is nearly double of that of the males.

A further examination of the data in Table 4.8 brings the fact into light that the high ratio of married and un-married persons among males in comparison to females has been due to high proportion of widowed persons in female houseless respondents in comparison to male houseless respondents. It is a well-known truth, basically in Indian society, that if a female is widowed, she is usually not re-married, but males are generally re-married. As a corollary, it can also be explained that the proportion of widowed, divorced or separated persons in female

houseless respondents is relatively much higher than houseless males. It is mainly due to migration of females to the Kanpur city after the death of husband, or after being divorced/separated from husband, or due to mental illness, physical disability, etc.

Table 4.8: Percent Distribution of Sex-Wise Marital Status of Houseless Respondents*

Zones	Male/Female	Marital-status of houseless respondents				
		Married	Un-married	Widowed	Separated/ Divorced	Total
Zone 1	Male	42.11	43.42	10.91	3.57	100.00
	Female	32.00	32.00	32.00	4.00	100.00
	Total	41.65	42.91	11.85	3.59	100.00
Zone 2	Male	60.82	27.84	6.19	5.15	100.00
	Female	40.00	50.00	-	10.00	100.00
	Total	58.88	29.91	5.61	5.61	100.00
Zone 3	Male	69.29	18.11	10.23	2.36	100.00
	Female	38.10	4.76	57.14	-	100.00
	Total	64.86	16.22	16.89	2.03	100.00
Zone 4	Male	40.66	40.11	16.48	2.75	100.00
	Female	7.69	30.77	46.15	15.38	100.00
	Total	38.46	39.49	18.46	3.59	100.00
Zone 5	Male	61.78	26.11	9.55	2.55	100.00
	Female	43.75	18.75	31.25	6.25	100.00
	Total	60.12	25.43	11.56	2.89	100.00
Zone 6	Male	60.80	27.84	10.23	1.14	100.00
	Female	31.82	13.64	54.55	-	100.00
	Total	57.58	26.26	15.15	1.01	100.00
Total	Male	51.06	34.93	11.01	2.99	100.00
	Female	32.71	22.43	40.18	4.67	100.00
	Total	49.64	33.96	13.28	3.12	100.00

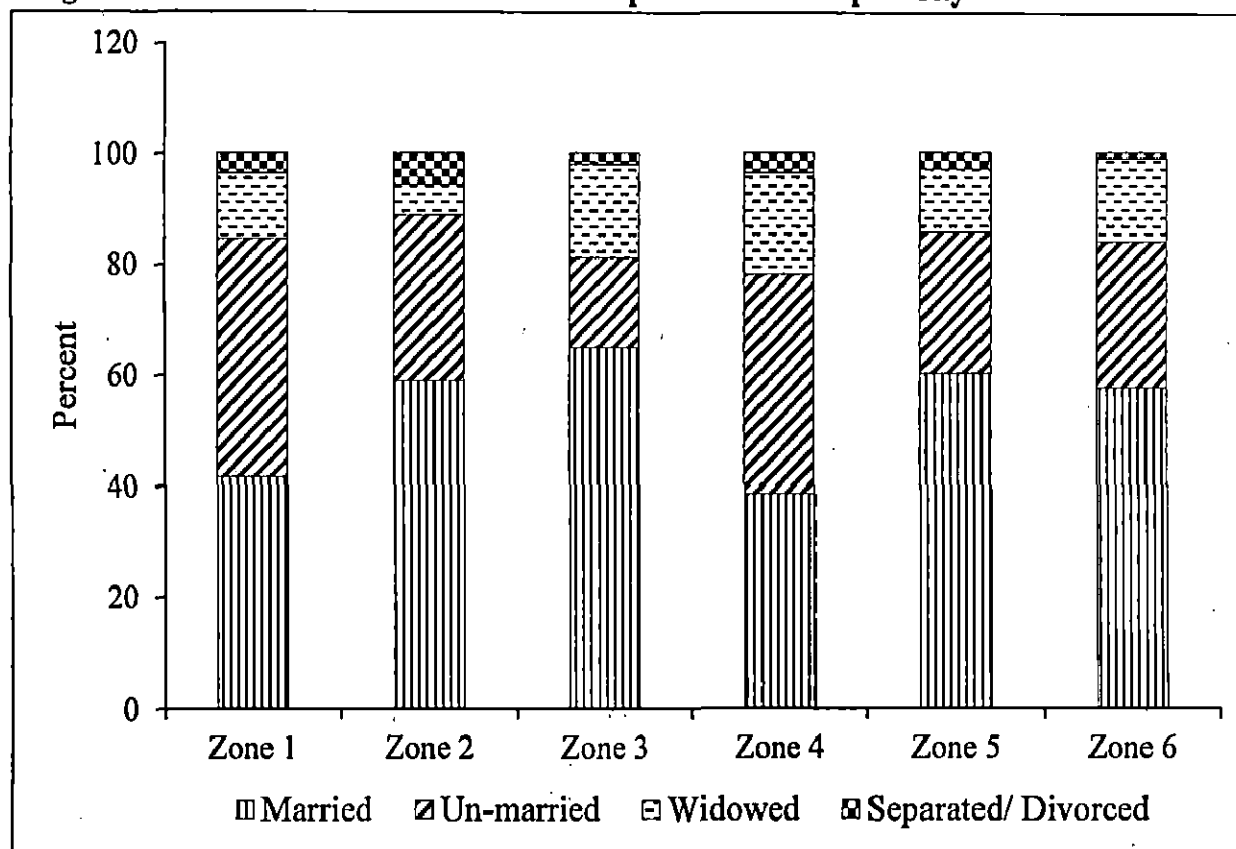
Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

* The data of houseless households' family members excluded in this table.

It would be seen from the table that the share of married persons in all the zones of the city exceeds the un-married persons, excepting Zone 1 and Zone 4 which account 42.91 and 39.49 percent respectively (vide Diagram 4.5). Among the married persons, married males significantly involve larger proportion than married females in the whole city. Similarly, among the un-married persons, the ratio of males exceeds the females in all the zones, barring Zone 2 that records only 27.84 percent. Notwithstanding, in all the zones of city, the huge remarkable proportion of widowed houseless respondents is shared by the females in comparison to males. However, no widowed female has been reported in Zone 2. Likewise, in the separated or divorced houseless respondents, the percent values of females overstep the

males while Zone 3 and Zone 6 did not register any single separated or divorced female in the city.

Diagram 4.5: Marital Status of Houseless Respondents in Kanpur City



Source: Based on Table 4.8.

4.4.2. Marital status of houseless households' family members

Table 4.9 contains the data about the percent distribution of sex-wise marital status of houseless households' family members for each zone in the Kanpur city. It would be seen from this table that the number of un-married persons in the houseless families is nearly double in proportion to the married persons, while a negligible share is occupied by the widowed and separated/divorced population against the data provided in Table 4.8. Another notable trait indicated by the data is that among the married and un-married marital-status of houseless households' family members, the ratio of females exceeds the males. However, the males surpass females in the widowed marital-status category, mainly because the physically, mentally or visually handicapped male persons remain idle at home as they are not provided any job due to their inability to work.

A comparative analysis of data in Table 4.9 discloses that ratio of un-married persons in all the zones of city is exceedingly greater than married persons. The highest differential percent recorded between un-married and married houseless households' family members is in

Zone 5, followed by Zones 6, 1, 3, 4 and 2. The percentage of males among the married persons is evidenced higher than in females in Zones 1, 2, 3 and 6, though Zone 4 and 5 witnessed lower percentage of married males in comparison to females i.e. 33.33 and 29.55 percent. Moreover, the reversed situation has been observed in all these zones of the city in the category of un-married marital-status, viz., Zones 1, 2, 3 and 6 account 65.00, 71.43, 66.67 and 68.18 percent values of females respectively, which are higher than their male counterparts, while Zone 4 and Zone 5 show the percent values for un-married females to be 46.67 and 55.88 respectively, that are lower than un-married males.

Table 4.9: Percent Distribution of Sex-Wise Marital Status of Houseless Households' Family Members*

Zones	Male/ Female	Marital-status of houseless households' family members				
		Married	Unmarried	Widowed	Separated/ Divorced	Total
Zone 1	Male	33.93	60.71	5.36	-	100.00
	Female	32.50	65.00	2.50	-	100.00
	Total	33.33	62.50	4.17	-	100.00
Zone 2	Male	39.13	55.80	5.07	-	100.00
	Female	28.57	71.43	-	-	100.00
	Total	38.16	57.24	4.61	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	37.33	60.00	2.67	-	100.00
	Female	30.77	66.67	2.56	-	100.00
	Total	35.98	61.38	2.65	-	100.00
Zone 4	Male	33.33	64.00	2.67	-	100.00
	Female	53.33	46.67	-	-	100.00
	Total	36.67	61.11	2.22	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	29.55	67.42	3.03	-	100.00
	Female	41.18	55.88	2.94	-	100.00
	Total	31.93	65.06	3.01	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	32.33	64.22	3.45	-	100.00
	Female	29.55	68.18	-	2.27	100.00
	Total	31.88	64.86	2.90	0.36	100.00
Total	Male	34.23	62.20	3.58	-	100.00
	Female	34.41	63.44	1.62	0.54	100.00
	Total	34.26	62.44	3.20	0.10	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

* The data of houseless respondents excluded in this table.

The percent distribution of data about widowed persons given in Table 4.9 clearly shows that the percent share of widowed males outperforms the widowed females in the whole city; however, no widowed male has been recorded in Zones 2, 4 and 6. A striking facet may also be seen in the table that, barring Zone 6 which only records the divorced or separated

females accounting merely 2.27 percent, no divorced/separated male and female has been recorded among the houseless households' family members in the city.

4.5. Religious-composition of houseless population

Table 4.10 illustrates a comparative picture of the houseless population composition based on the category of religion. This table evidences that two religious sects, namely Hindu and Muslim, altogether dominate the bulk of houseless population of the city in which the majority of houseless persons belong to the Hindu community and it is more than seven times of that of the Muslims.

Table 4.10: Percent Distribution of Houseless Population by Religion Category

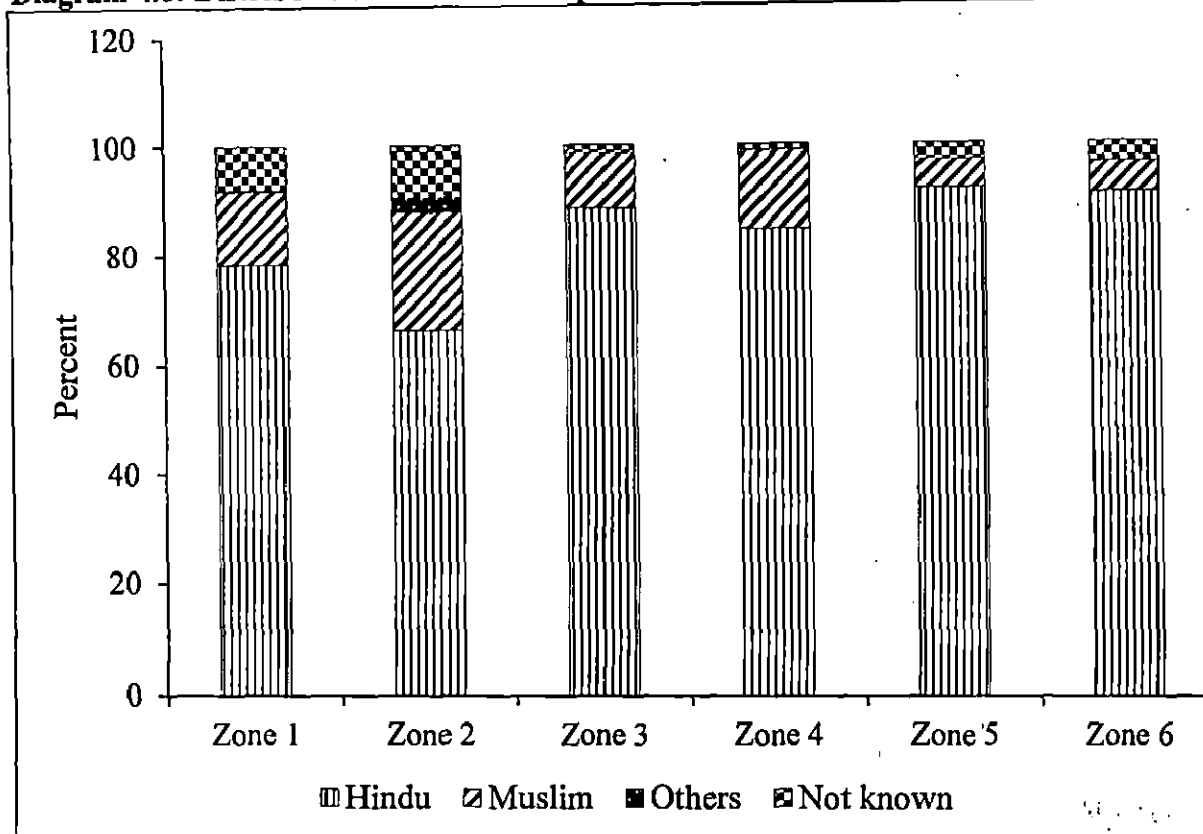
Zones	Male/ Female	Religion of houseless population				
		Hindu	Muslim	Others	Not known	Total
Zone 1	Male	79.70	13.16	0.19	6.95	100.00
	Female	52.00	20.00	-	28.00	100.00
	Total	78.46	13.46	0.18	7.90	100.00
Zone 2	Male	70.87	21.36	-	7.77	100.00
	Female	30.77	23.08	23.08	23.08	100.00
	Total	66.38	21.55	2.59	9.48	100.00
Zone 3	Male	88.89	9.52	-	1.59	100.00
	Female	86.36	13.64	-	-	100.00
	Total	88.51	10.14	-	1.35	100.00
Zone 4	Male	84.15	15.30	-	0.55	100.00
	Female	91.67	-	-	8.33	100.00
	Total	84.62	14.36	-	1.03	100.00
Zone 5	Male	91.72	5.10	-	3.18	100.00
	Female	93.75	6.25	-	-	100.00
	Total	91.91	5.20	-	2.89	100.00
Zone 6	Male	92.61	4.55	-	2.84	100.00
	Female	77.27	13.64	-	9.09	100.00
	Total	90.91	5.56	-	3.54	100.00
Total	Male	83.79	11.59	0.08	4.54	100.00
	Female	71.82	13.64	2.73	11.82	100.00
	Total	82.84	11.75	0.29	5.12	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Among the religious composition of houseless population of the city, the Hindus account 82.84 percent followed by the Muslims (11.75 percent) and others religious groups (0.29 percent). Further, the religious identity of 5.12 percent houseless population has not been recognised due to their mental disability, reluctant nature of respondents, and fear of communal and sectarian violence. Zone wise analysis also reveals that the proportion of Hindus is recorded much higher in all the zones of the city, followed by Muslims, houseless

population whose religious identity is not known while other religious groups is witnessed in least fraction only in two zones (Zones 1 and 2) (vide Diagram 4.6).

Diagram 4.6: Distribution of Houseless Population in Kanpur City by Religion Category



Source: Based on Table 4.10.

An examination of Table 4.10 shows that the ratio of Hindu males exceeds the Hindu females by accounting 83.79 and 71.82 percent respectively. The opposite figures were noticed among the Muslims, in which females (13.64 percent) over-cross the males (11.59 percent). It is mainly due to the existence of lowest socio-economic conditions among the Muslim community, large family size, and larger number of widowed & divorced women that has compelled them to come out in the streets for their survival after being deprived of one of the basic needs that is shelter. An important inference that may be drawn from the analysis of Table 4.10 is that Hindu houseless male population in Zones 1, 2, 3 and 6 register 79.70, 70.87, 88.89 and 92.61 percent, higher than the Hindu houseless female population, whereas at the same time, Hindu females in Zone 4 and Zone 5 have greater percentage than the Hindu males i.e. 91.67 and 93.75 respectively.

As far as male-female break-up among the Muslim houseless population is concerned, the quotient of males never exceeds females in all the zones of the city, excepting Zone 4, in which Muslim females have not been recorded in any number. Houseless people in the other

religious category have been accounted only 0.18 percent in Zone 1 and 2.59 percent in Zone 2; moreover, Zone 1 witnessed only males (0.19 percent) whereas Zone 2 has females only (23.08 percent). The category of houseless persons, whose religious identity is not known, given in Table 4.10, depicts that the proportion of males in all the zones is lower than the females, excluding Zone 3 and Zone 5 wherein total absence of houseless females has been recorded in the study. The large share of females, whose religious category is unknown, is due to mental as well as physical disabilities. It means that houseless males are in better condition in comparison to houseless females regarding the nature of mental status.

4.6. Caste category of houseless population

Data regarding caste category of general, other backward castes (OBCs), scheduled castes (SCs), scheduled tribes (STs) and the persons whose categories are not known have been provided in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Percentage Distribution of Houseless Population by Caste Category

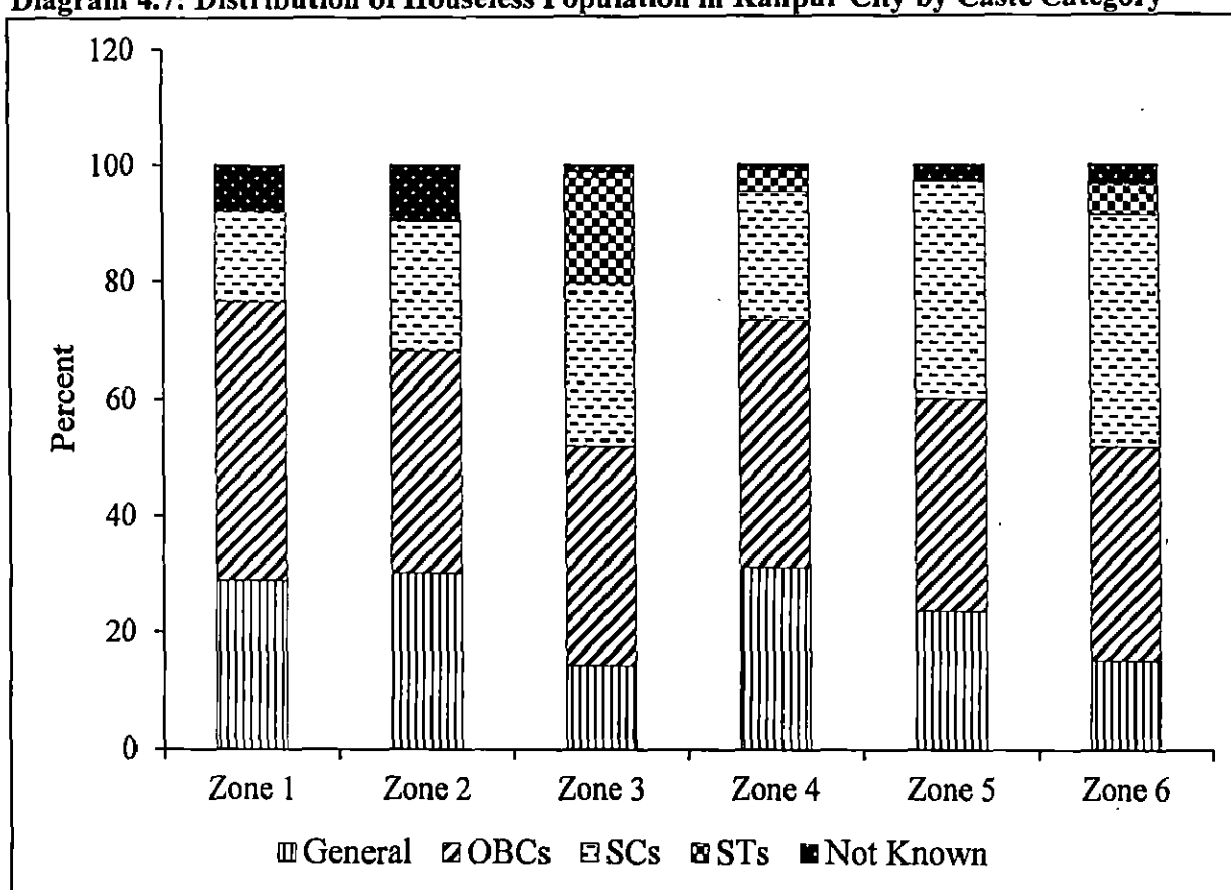
Zones	Male/ Female	Caste categories of houseless population					Total
		General	OBCs	SCs	STs	Not Known	
Zone 1	Male	29.43	47.74	15.85	-	6.98	100.00
	Female	16.00	48.00	8.00	-	28.00	100.00
	Total	28.83	47.75	15.50	-	7.93	100.00
Zone 2	Male	31.07	38.83	22.33	-	7.77	100.00
	Female	20.00	30.00	20.00	-	30.00	100.00
	Total	30.09	38.05	22.12	-	9.73	100.00
Zone 3	Male	15.08	42.86	29.37	11.11	1.59	100.00
	Female	9.09	9.09	18.18	63.64	-	100.00
	Total	14.19	37.84	27.70	18.92	1.35	100.00
Zone 4	Male	32.22	41.67	22.22	3.33	0.56	100.00
	Female	16.67	50.00	16.67	8.33	8.33	100.00
	Total	31.25	42.19	21.88	3.65	1.04	100.00
Zone 5	Male	24.20	36.31	36.31	-	3.18	100.00
	Female	18.75	37.50	43.75	-	-	100.00
	Total	23.70	36.42	36.99	-	2.89	100.00
Zone 6	Male	15.34	35.23	40.91	5.68	2.84	100.00
	Female	13.64	50.00	27.27	-	9.09	100.00
	Total	15.15	36.87	39.39	5.05	3.54	100.00
Total	Male	25.94	42.53	24.61	2.36	4.56	100.00
	Female	14.95	37.38	21.50	14.02	12.15	100.00
	Total	25.09	42.13	24.37	3.26	5.15	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

It would be seen from the table that majority of houseless population in Kanpur city is composed of OBC people (42.13 percent), followed by the general category population (25.09 percent), SC population (24.37 percent) and ST population (3.26 percent). A comparative

analysis between houseless males and females exhibits that the ratio of males exceeds that of females in the categories of General, OBCs and SCs population, but reverse condition is noted in the STs population wherein females are observed to have greater share than the males, it is because the scheduled castes' females have a lot of employment opportunities along the road sides in the form of making & weaving the door mats, cots, chairs, stools, etc. from the vegetable matter, and crafting spice grinding slaps, flour grinding parts, idols of Gods and Goddess, different decorative items etc. from the stones.

Diagram 4.7: Distribution of Houseless Population in Kanpur City by Caste Category



Source: Based on Table 4.11.

An examination of the Table 4.11 describes that the proportion of houseless people of OBC category predominated the persons of general as well as ST categories in all the zones of the city. Besides this, the ratio of OBCs also exceeds the SCs population in whole city; except in Zone 5 and Zone 6, where the scheduled castes' population overstepped the OBCs population (vide Diagram 4.7). Among the general population, the share of male population is higher than female population in the city and alike pattern is witnessed in the scheduled castes population by the males over the females barring Zone 5 wherein females accounted 43.75 percent against the 36.31 percent of males. Nevertheless, in the OBCs houseless population,

percentage of males surmounts the females in two zones, namely Zone 2 (38.83 percent) and Zone 3 (42.86 percent), while in the remaining four zones, i.e. Zones 1, 4, 5, and 6, females are recording greater percentage than the males which is 48.00 percent, 50.00 percent, 37.50 percent, and 50.00 percent respectively.

Table 4.11 also reveals the fact that there is not even a single person belonging to scheduled tribes' category among the houseless population in the three zones of the city, namely Zone 1, Zone 2 and Zone 5. On the other hand, a very negligible percent value of scheduled tribe people has been observed in the remaining three zones i.e. Zone 3 (18.92 percent), Zone 4 (3.65 percent) and Zone 6 (5.05 percent). Moreover, 5.15 percent houseless population in the study area remained un-categorised as their category could not be identified due to lack of awareness, ignorance, reluctance and mental illness.

4.7. Literacy and educational status

Literacy and educational attainment are commanding indicators of socio-economic development of any section of the society or region. Literacy, being an effective instrument for socio-economic development, can change the socio-economic conditions of the people of any section of the society. Though the concept of literacy varies from country to country, it generally refers to the minimum level of literacy skills. This minimum level of skills varies from ability to communicate orally to make a check of a variety of difficult arithmetical computations. The Census of India 2011 defines literacy as a ratio between literate population and total population excluding the children below seven years. In other words, a person aged 7 years and above who can both read and write with understanding in any language has been taken as literate.

4.7.1. Literacy status of houseless respondents

Percent distribution of houseless literates and illiterates is set out in Table 4.12. The distribution signifies that the rate of illiteracy among the houseless respondents is much higher (61.42 percent) than literacy rate (38.58 percent). As far as the difference of literacy status between male and female is concerned, the ratio of illiteracy among the houseless females is exceedingly much higher than the males, for example 92.52 percent females are illiterate against the 58.81 percent illiterate males. The prevalence of mass illiteracy among the females is due to the existence of the patriarchal system, which is still in practice in several sections of the Indian society where males use to get all social and economic entitlements more preferably than females.

Table 4.12: Percent Distribution of Literacy Status of Houseless respondents*

Zones	Male/Female	Literacy-status		
		Literates	Illiterates	Total
Zone 1	Male	41.35	58.65	100.00
	Female	4.00	96.00	100.00
	Total	39.68	60.32	100.00
Zone 2	Male	31.07	68.93	100.00
	Female	-	100.00	100.00
	Total	28.32	71.68	100.00
Zone 3	Male	44.44	55.56	100.00
	Female	9.09	90.91	100.00
	Total	39.19	60.81	100.00
Zone 4	Male	37.70	62.30	100.00
	Female	25.00	75.00	100.00
	Total	36.92	63.08	100.00
Zone 5	Male	50.96	49.04	100.00
	Female	6.25	93.75	100.00
	Total	46.82	53.18	100.00
Zone 6	Male	39.20	60.80	100.00
	Female	4.55	95.45	100.00
	Total	35.35	64.65	100.00
Total	Male	41.19	58.81	100.00
	Female	7.48	92.52	100.00
	Total	38.58	61.42	100.00

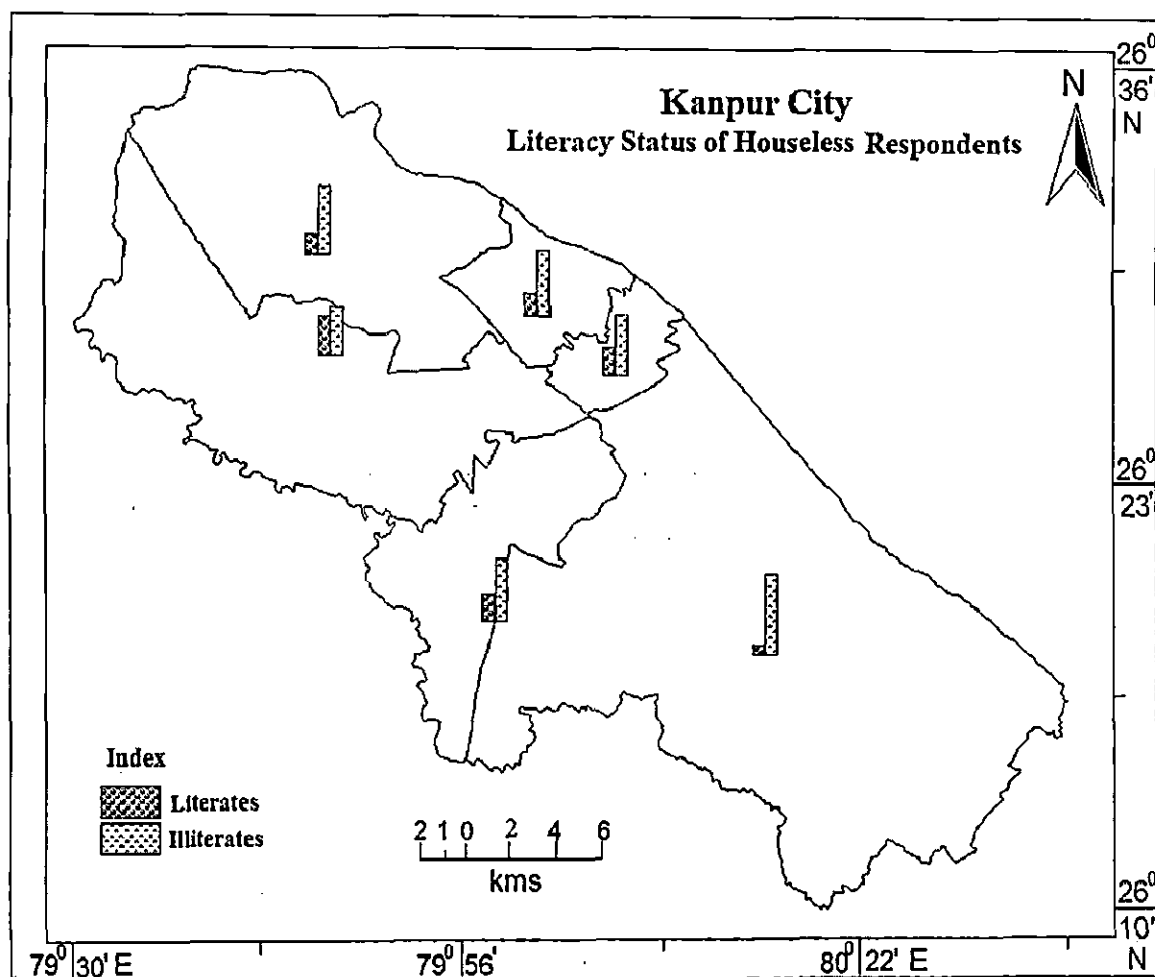
Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

* The data of houseless households' family members excluded in this table.

It may also be seen from the table that in all the zones of the city, the ratio of illiterate houseless respondent people is recorded higher than the literates (see Figure 2). In male-female population too, the share of illiterates transcends the literates in the whole city, barring Zone 5 in which the literates marginally exceed the illiterates. However, the percentage difference between literates and illiterates among the female houseless respondents are much greater than the male houseless population, and no female literates have been found in Zone 2. The highest literacy rate has been accounted by Zone 5 (46.82 percent).

Educational levels of houseless respondents

A detailed account of educational levels among houseless respondents is given in Table 4.13. Among the total literate houseless respondents in the city (i.e. 38.58 percent see Table 4.12); nearly seventy percent persons have the education upto primary level. The data shows that the magnitude of primary education is, to a large extent, higher than secondary, senior secondary, graduation and diploma taken together, their respective values being 69.60, 21.22, 6.69, 2.29 and 0.19 percent.



Source: Based on table 4.12.

Fig. 4.2

An important point to be noted here is that 2.29 percent houseless persons having the education upto the graduate level are unable to find the minimum basic means of life for their survival (viz., food, clothing and shelter, and not mention anything about modern basic needs of health, education and recreation) and living the life of houselessness that is totally a black clout on the modern humanity or democratic governments.

Zone wise examination of the data of levels of education also depicts that the magnitude of primary education is registered greater in proportion in all the zones of the city, subsequently followed by the secondary, senior secondary (in all zones), graduation (Zones 1, 5 and 6) and diploma education (Zone 6) (vide Diagram 4.8).

A further examination of the table depicts that among the houseless male respondents, the highest percentage is accounted by primary literates (84.06 percent), followed by the secondary (8.70 percent) and senior secondary (7.25 percent) in Zone 4. Similarly, the respective figures in Zone 2 are 70.00, 16.67 and 13.33 percent, and in Zone 3, these are 69.09, 27.27 and 3.64 percent. Zones 1 and 5 observed literates among the male respondents

upto the graduation level. There is no diploma holder in the city, except in Zone 6 which accounts 1.56 percent (1.59 percent among the males). In addition to it, all zones of the Kanpur city documented primary, secondary and senior secondary literates for the houseless males in comparison to females.

Table 4.13: Percent Distribution of Educational Levels of Houseless Respondents*

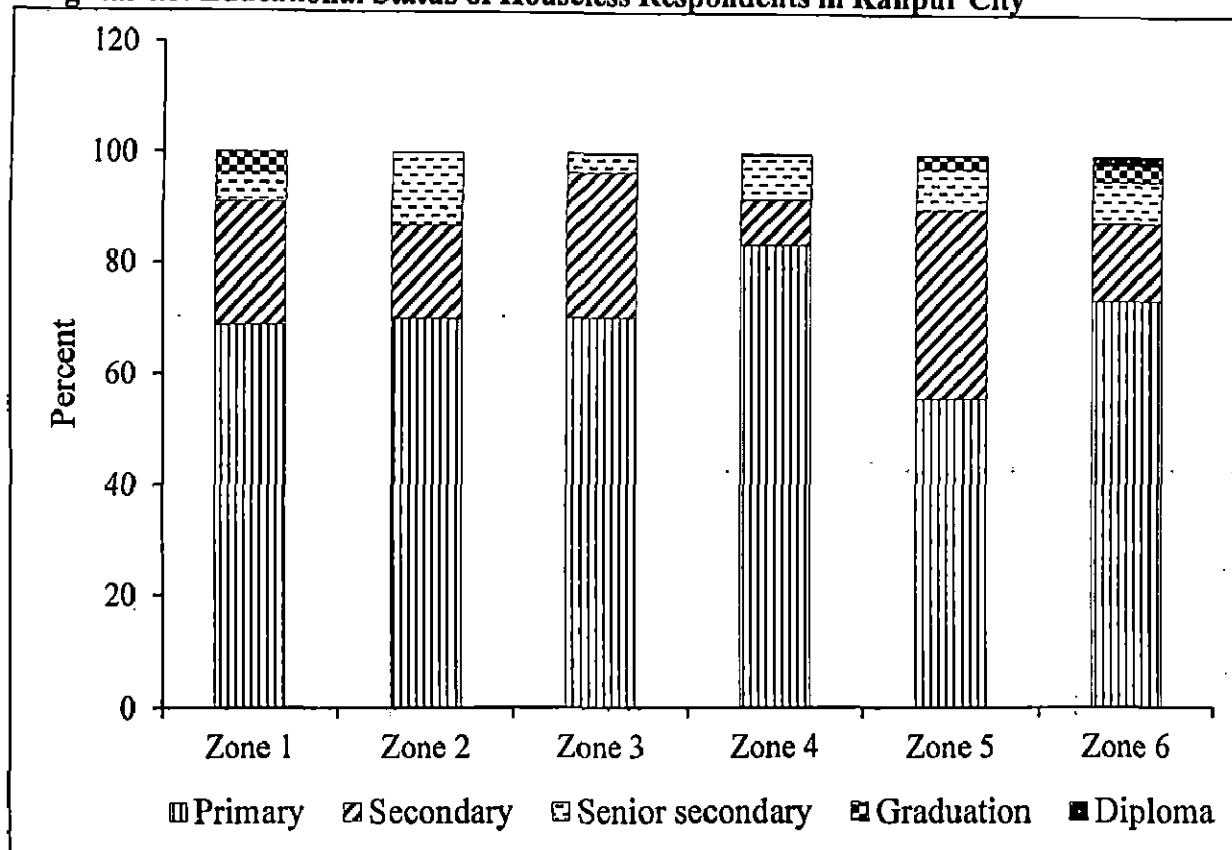
Zones	Male/ Female	Levels of education					
		Primary	Secondary	Senior secondary	Graduation	Diploma	Total
Zone 1	Male	68.64	22.27	5.45	3.64	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	68.78	22.17	5.43	3.62	-	100.00
Zone 2	Male	70.00	16.67	13.33	-	-	100.00
	Female	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	70.00	16.67	13.33	-	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	69.09	27.27	3.64	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	70.18	26.32	3.51	-	-	100.00
Zone 4	Male	84.06	8.70	7.25	-	-	100.00
	Female	66.67	-	33.33	-	-	100.00
	Total	83.33	8.33	8.33	-	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	55.13	34.62	7.69	2.56	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	55.70	34.18	7.59	2.53	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	73.02	14.29	7.94	3.17	1.59	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	73.44	14.06	7.81	3.13	1.56	100.00
Total	Male	69.32	21.55	6.60	2.33	0.19	100.00
	Female	87.50	-	12.50	-	-	100.00
	Total	69.60	21.22	6.69	2.29	0.19	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

* The data of houseless households' family members excluded in this table.

An analysis of the data given in Table 4.13 provides the information that the houseless females registered literacy only in the categories of primary and senior secondary education which is 87.50 percent and 12.50 percent respectively. Females' educational level is limited upto the primary education only, but experienced the zero percentage in other remaining educational categories in Zones 1, 3, 5 and 6, while Zone 2 did not witness literate females on any level in the whole Kanpur city. The proportion of two-third in primary and one-third in senior secondary level education is shared by the houseless females in Zone 4.

Diagram 4.8: Educational Status of Houseless Respondents in Kanpur City



Source: Based on Table 4.13.

4.7.3. Literacy status of houseless households' family members

The zone wise percent distribution of literacy status among the houseless households' family members has been provided in Table 4.14. Table 4.14 reveals the hidden fact that the proportion of illiteracy among the houseless households' family members is even much higher than that of houseless respondents as given in Table 4.12. The ratio between literates and illiterates among family members are 27.55 and 72.45 percent respectively. The respective figures are 26.05 and 73.95 percent for the males and 33.87 and 66.13 percent for the females.

It would also be seen from the Table 4.14 that the highest difference between literates and illiterates is found in Zone 2 where the literates account only 7.89 percent and illiterates 92.11 percent. The highest literacy rate among the houseless households' family members was observed in Zone 1 i.e. 43.75 percent. Literacy rate in Zones 3, 4, 5 and 6 was registered to be 28.57, 23.33, 33.13 and 30.07 percent respectively.

The sex-wise literacy scenario in the city shows that there exists a remarkable gap between male-female literacy as was noticed in Zone 2 and Zone 5. Merely 4.35 percent male literates have been recorded in Zone 2 whereas females literates have been recorded 42.86 percent.

Table 4.14: Percent Distribution of Literacy Status of Houseless Households' Family Members*

Zones	Male/Female	Literacy status		
		Literates	Illiterates	Total
Zone 1	Male	44.64	55.36	100.00
	Female	42.50	57.50	100.00
	Total	43.75	56.25	100.00
Zone 2	Male	4.35	95.65	100.00
	Female	42.86	57.14	100.00
	Total	7.89	92.11	100.00
Zone 3	Male	28.67	71.33	100.00
	Female	28.21	71.79	100.00
	Total	28.57	71.43	100.00
Zone 4	Male	24.00	76.00	100.00
	Female	20.00	80.00	100.00
	Total	23.33	76.67	100.00
Zone 5	Male	3.40	6.58	100.00
	Female	29.41	70.59	100.00
	Total	33.13	66.87	100.00
Zone 6	Male	28.88	71.12	100.00
	Female	36.36	63.64	100.00
	Total	30.07	69.93	100.00
Total	Male	26.05	73.95	100.00
	Female	33.87	66.13	100.00
	Total	27.55	72.45	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

* The data of houseless respondents excluded in this table.

The respective percentage values for males and females experienced in Zone 5 are 3.40 and 29.41 percent. The difference in literacy rate between males and females among the houseless households' family members in Zones 1, 3 and 4 was found to be ranging from 2 to 4. The Zone 6 accounts nearly 8 percent range of difference in the literacy rate between males (28.88 percent) and females (36.36 percent).

4.7.4. Educational levels of houseless households' family members

Table 4.15 contains the data showing zone-wise distribution of educational levels among houseless households' family members classified into four categories of education viz., primary, secondary, senior secondary and graduation. As can be seen in Table 4.15, the number of people educated upto primary level is almost four times greater than the total proportion of secondary, senior secondary and graduate people in the city. Male houseless family members evidenced the significant percentage at all levels than the females, because male persons were accounted 75.50 percent in primary, 14.00 percent in secondary, 9.00

percent in senior secondary and 1.50 in graduation. However, the respective figures for female houseless family members were recorded 87.10, 9.68, 1.61 and 1.61 percent.

Table 4.15: Percent Distribution of Educational Levels of Houseless Households' Family Members*

Zones	Male/Female	Levels of education				
		Primary	Secondary	Senior secondary	Graduation	Total
Zone 1	Male	78.26	-	21.74	-	100.00
	Female	94.12	-	5.88	-	100.00
	Total	85.00	-	15.00	-	100.00
Zone 2	Male	50.00	-	33.33	16.67	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	75.00	-	16.67	8.33	100.00
Zone 3	Male	83.33	11.90	4.76	-	100.00
	Female	54.55	45.45	-	-	100.00
	Total	77.36	18.87	3.77	-	100.00
Zone 4	Male	76.47	17.65	-	5.88	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	78.95	15.79	-	5.26	100.00
Zone 5	Male	60.00	22.22	17.78	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	67.27	18.18	14.55	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	82.09	14.93	1.49	1.49	100.00
	Female	87.50	6.25	-	6.25	100.00
	Total	83.13	13.25	1.20	2.41	100.00
Total	Male	75.50	14.00	9.00	1.50	100.00
	Female	87.10	9.68	1.61	1.61	100.00
	Total	78.24	12.98	7.25	1.53	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

* The data of houseless respondents excluded in this table.

A further analysis of Table 4.15 makes it evident that primary literate houseless households' family members have been identified in all the zones, except in Zone 6, as compared to other categories of education, and same pattern has been followed in the sex-wise percent distribution of educational levels in the whole city. The 85.00 percent primary and 15.00 percent senior secondary literate houseless households' family persons have been observed in Zone 1. The Zones 3 and 5 witnessed literacy upto the primary, secondary and senior secondary level and percentage of these categories are 77.36, 18.87 and 3.77 in Zone 3, while in Zone 5 it is 67.27, 18.18 and 14.55 respectively. The percentage of literate people in Zone 2 was found to be 75.00, 16.67, and 8.33 respectively at primary, senior secondary and graduation level, while Zone 4 recorded 78.95, 15.79 and 5.26 percent persons in primary, secondary and graduation respectively. The Zone 6 turned out to be an exception in the city,

which experienced the literate houseless households' family members in all educational categories i.e. primary (83.13 percent), secondary (13.25 percent), senior secondary (1.20 percent) and graduation (2.41 percent). It would also be seen from the table that Zones 2, 4 and 5 accounted hundred percent primary literate females, but zero percent value in subsequent educational categories. A small fraction of graduate people has been registered only in three zones, namely Zone 2, Zone 4 and Zone 6, with 8.33, 5.26 and 2.41 percent respectively.

4.8. Reasons of illiteracy of houseless population

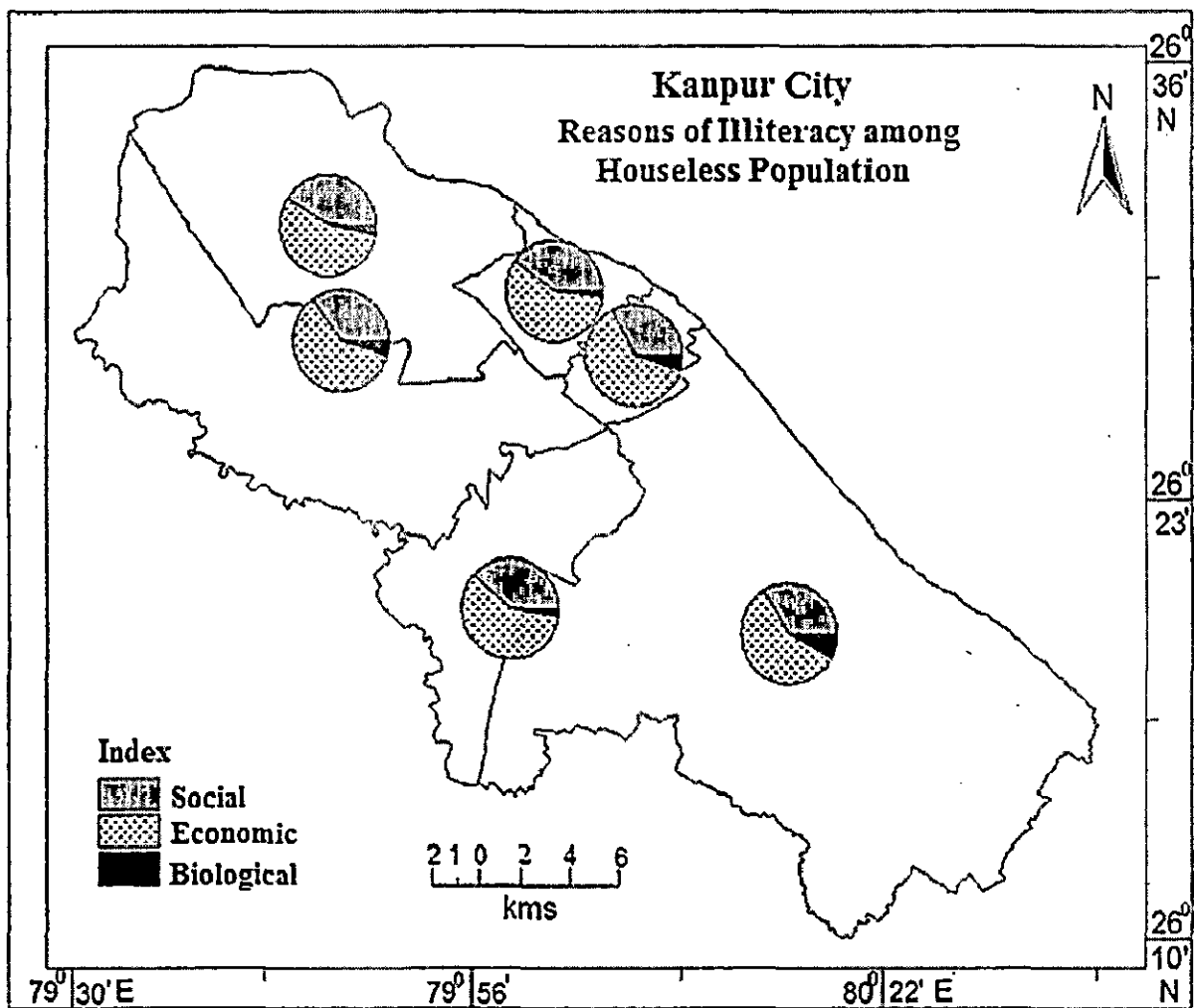
Table 4.16 presents data on the socio-economic and biological determinants of illiteracy among houseless population. It reveals that nearly three-fifth (59.38 percent) of the total reasons recorded as responsible for illiteracy among these people are of economic nature and, thus, fall under the category of economic determinants, followed by social and biological reasons i.e. 36.34 and 4.29 percent respectively.

Table 4.16: Percent Distribution of Reasons of Illiteracy among Houseless Population

Zones	Male/Female	Reasons of illiteracy			
		Social reasons	Economic reasons	Biological reasons	Total
Zone 1	Male	31.76	63.39	4.85	100.00
	Female	50.00	35.71	14.29	100.00
	Total	32.98	61.55	5.48	100.00
Zone 2	Male	31.69	61.75	6.56	100.00
	Female	48.00	36.00	16.00	100.00
	Total	33.65	58.65	7.69	100.00
Zone 3	Male	37.98	60.58	1.44	100.00
	Female	45.65	52.17	2.17	100.00
	Total	39.37	59.06	1.57	100.00
Zone 4	Male	38.74	59.93	1.32	100.00
	Female	58.62	34.48	6.90	100.00
	Total	40.48	57.70	1.81	100.00
Zone 5	Male	31.13	64.62	4.25	100.00
	Female	52.00	38.00	10.00	100.00
	Total	35.11	59.54	5.34	100.00
Zone 6	Male	38.81	58.39	2.80	100.00
	Female	50.85	45.76	3.39	100.00
	Total	40.87	56.23	2.90	100.00
Total	Male	34.43	61.82	3.75	100.00
	Female	50.57	41.13	8.30	100.00
	Total	36.34	59.38	4.29	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

An important inference that may be drawn from this table is that social reasons are more detrimental for female illiteracy than the economic reasons as they account 50.57 percent against the economic (41.13 percent) and biological (8.30 percent) reasons combinedly in the whole Kanpur city. It means that female education has not been given much importance in our Indian society because the females are still considered as the 'wealth of others', as after her marriage, she happens to belong more to her husband and his family and home, so it is not considered to be beneficial to invest in her education. On the contrary, the male illiteracy is mainly determined by the economic causes instead of social and biological causes wherein the percentage shares of social, economic and biological reasons responsible for male illiteracy are 34.43, 61.82 and 3.75 respectively.



Source: Based on table 4.16.

Fig. 4.3

The zone wise analysis of the data regarding reasons of illiteracy among the houseless population also depicts that economic reasons are the major determinants of illiteracy in the whole Kanpur city (see Figure 4.3). Furthermore, male-female break up of reasons of illiteracy explains that economic reasons are primary/primarily detrimental for male illiteracy in all the

zones of the city. It can be seen from the table that it is the social reasons which are largely responsible for female illiteracy in all the zones, except in Zone 3 where economic reasons recorded a higher percentage (52.17 percent) against the social reasons (45.65 percent).

4.8.1. Social reasons of illiteracy

Percent distribution of social reasons of illiteracy among the houseless population has been provided in the Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Percent Distribution of Social Reasons of Illiteracy among Houseless Population in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/ Female	Social reasons of illiteracy									Total
		Ignorant parents	Orphan	No interest in education	Large family size	Long distance of schools	Gender discrimination	Caste discrimination	Absence of schools	Others	
Zone 1	Male	49.80	25.70	6.43	3.61	4.42	-	5.63	1.61	2.81	100.
	Female	35.71	14.29	3.57	3.57	17.86	25.00	-	-	-	100.
	Total	48.38	24.55	6.14	3.61	5.78	3.97	3.61	1.44	2.53	100.
Zone 2	Male	51.72	25.86	5.17	8.62	5.17	-	-	1.72	1.72	100.
	Female	50.00	-	-	-	8.33	33.33	-	8.33	-	100.
	Total	51.43	21.43	4.29	7.14	5.71	5.71	-	2.86	1.43	100.
Zone 3	Male	31.65	21.52	16.46	11.39	5.06	-	6.33	2.53	5.06	100.
	Female	57.14	-	19.05	4.76	-	19.05	-	-	-	100.
	Total	37.00	17.00	17.00	10.00	4.00	4.00	5.00	2.00	4.00	100.
Zone 4	Male	22.22	38.46	17.09	8.55	8.55	-	1.71	2.56	0.85	100.
	Female	35.29	17.65	5.88	11.76	-	11.76	5.88	5.88	5.88	100.
	Total	23.88	35.82	15.67	8.96	7.46	1.49	2.24	2.99	1.49	100.
Zone 5	Male	30.30	27.27	16.67	13.64	6.06	-	3.03	1.52	1.52	100.
	Female	34.62	15.38	-	11.54	-	26.92	-	7.69	3.85	100.
	Total	31.52	23.91	11.96	13.04	4.35	7.61	2.17	3.26	2.17	100.
Zone 6	Male	49.55	16.22	18.92	2.70	2.70	-	4.50	3.60	1.80	100.
	Female	36.67	3.33	20.00	3.33	3.33	30.00	3.33	-	-	100.
	Total	46.81	13.48	19.15	2.84	2.84	6.38	4.26	2.84	1.42	100.
Total	Male	41.18	26.03	12.35	6.62	5.15	-	4.12	2.21	2.35	100
	Female	40.30	8.96	8.96	5.97	5.22	24.63	1.49	2.99	1.49	100
	Total	41.03	23.22	11.79	6.51	5.16	4.55	3.19	2.33	2.21	100

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

A close scrutiny of Table 4.17 would reveal that among the social reasons of illiteracy, the proportion of ignorant parents registered 41.03 percent. If the percentage shares of the categories of ignorant parents, orphans (23.22 percent) and the people having no interest in education (11.79 percent) are taken together into account, they contribute 76.04 percent among the reasons for illiteracy, while the share of large family size, long distance of schools,

gender discrimination, caste discrimination and absence of schools taken together as social reasons of illiteracy has been reported to be 21.75 percent. In addition to it, the category of other social reasons which includes fear of teachers (1.11 percent), religious discrimination (0.25 percent), disputes in schools (0.25 percent), divorced or separated parents (0.25 percent), self-substance abuse (0.25 percent) and father substance abuse (0.12 percent), is also noted as an influential factor of illiteracy with 2.21 percent share (look Box 4.1). Table 4.17 clearly depicts that for male illiteracy, three factors of social category i.e. ignorant parents, orphan and no interest in education altogether conditioned 79.56 percent whereas two factors namely ignorant parents and gender discrimination of social category were responsible 64.93 percent illiteracy among female.

Box 4.1: Respondents' Observations about Literacy and Education

1. "I used to play in the background of school and didn't take interest in study at that time, so I am rendering now on the streets as houseless" (Manoj: 43, Bihar).
2. "Government schools are taking money for admission and books from our children, how can we send our children for education" (Shafique: 32, Kanpur Nagar).
3. "Principals of schools use to demand the ID proof to admit our children into schools, otherwise they will not give admission to the houseless children" (Pappo: 38, Kanpur Dehat).
4. "The schools do not admit our children due to no proof of ID, because who will take the responsibility of the pavement dwellers that they know us as a witness" (Bachan Sonkar: 32, Bihar).
5. "How our children can go to schools? We have to go for work and our elder children have to take care of the younger ones" (Zulekha: 27, West Bengal).
6. "I am a school going boy, I have passed high school from U.P. Board. I came here for work so that I can support my family. I have also applied for admission in 11th standard at Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh. The entrance test will be held on 13/5/12 at Aligarh, What will happen to my coming life. I don't know" (Saleem: 16, Bahraich).

Source: Based on primary survey by the researcher.

Analysis of the Table 4.17 explains that ignorant parents (48.38 percent) and orphanage (24.55 percent) were leading factors for prevailing illiteracy among the houseless population in Zone 1. The same pattern was followed in Zone 2 in which they contributed 51.43 percent

and 21.43 percent respectively. In Zone 3, four causes were found to be responsible for mass illiteracy among the houseless people i.e. ignorant parents (37.00 percent), orphan (17.00 percent), no interest in education (17.00 percent) and large family size (10.00 percent) which together observed to be 81 percent. The respective figures in Zone 4 are 23.88, 35.82, 15.67 and 8.96 percent, which as a whole became 84.33 percent, whereas in Zone 5, these are 31.52, 23.91, 11.96 and 13.04 percent respectively accounting to 80.79 percent in total. The proportion of three reasons viz., ignorant parents, orphanage and no interest in education as social reasons of illiteracy accounted for 79.44 percent illiteracy in Zone 6. Another important inference that may be drawn from this table is that the long distance of schools (17.86 percent) and gender discrimination (25.00 percent) were major determinants for houseless female illiteracy in Zone 1. In other words, it can be said that the gender discrimination for female illiteracy has been the principal detrimental factor, except the ignorant parents and orphan in whole city. Among the social reasons excluding the ignorant parents, orphan and no interest in education, any other reason has not been marked as significant.

4.8.2. Economic reasons of illiteracy

A detailed account of various economic reasons of illiteracy has been set out in the Table 4.18. The data in this table portrays that the poverty is the main hindrance for the houseless population to get the education, because this section of population is living under absolute poverty⁴ rather than the relative poverty, which means that they do not even have the minimum basic means to satisfy their basic needs. The high cost of education, low income, and unemployment are also other significant impediments for literacy among the houseless people. The maximum proportion among the economic reasons of illiteracy is that of poverty which recorded 47.67 percent share. The percentage shares of high cost of education, low income and unemployment as reasons of illiteracy have been registered 19.55 %, 18.80 % and 12.33 % respectively. Moreover, working since childhood, landless and supporting family among the economic reasons of illiteracy merely accounted 1.65 percent. It means that the four economic factors i.e. poverty, high cost of education; low income and unemployment are the major determinants of illiteracy which combinedly witnessed 98.35 percent. The proportion of poverty among males constitutes 46.85 percent, and that of females accounts the 56.88 percent of the economic reasons of illiteracy. For male illiteracy, the high cost of

⁴. Absolute poverty refers to the situations in which an individual even striving to fulfill his basic requirements but cannot achieved that.

education, low income and unemployment make more than half of the total i.e. 51.49 percent, whereas, in the case of females, it is 41.29 percent.

Table 4.18: Percent Distribution of Economic Reasons of Illiteracy among Houseless Population in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/ Female	Economic reasons of illiteracy							Total
		Poverty	High cost of education	Low income	Unemployment	Working since childhood	Landless	Supporting family	
Zone 1	Male	47.28	17.10	22.13	12.07	1.01	0.40	-	100.00
	Female	70.00	10.00	15.00	5.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	48.16	16.83	21.86	11.80	0.97	0.39	-	100.00
Zone 2	Female	48.67	18.58	20.35	11.50	-	0.88	-	100.00
	Female	22.22	22.22	33.33	22.22	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	46.72	18.85	21.31	12.30	-	0.82	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	45.24	19.05	19.05	12.70	3.17	-	0.79	100.00
	Female	79.17	12.50	4.17	-	-	-	4.17	100.00
	Total	50.67	18.00	16.67	10.67	2.67	-	1.33	100.00
Zone 4	Male	50.28	24.86	11.05	13.81	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	60.00	20.00	-	10.00	10.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	50.79	24.61	10.47	13.61	0.52	-	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	44.53	26.28	11.68	15.33	1.46	0.73	-	100.00
	Female	52.63	26.32	15.79	5.26	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	45.51	26.28	12.18	14.10	1.28	0.64	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	43.71	17.37	23.95	12.57	1.20	1.20	-	100.00
	Female	40.74	22.22	25.93	11.11	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	43.30	18.04	24.23	12.37	1.03	1.03	-	100.00
Total	Male	46.85	19.66	19.08	12.78	1.06	0.49	0.08	100.00
	Female	56.88	18.35	15.60	7.34	0.92	-	0.92	100.00
	Total	47.67	19.55	18.80	12.33	1.05	0.45	0.15	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The zone wise analysis of the data given in Table 4.18 reveals the fact that poverty in Zones 3 and 4 is responsible more than fifty percent for the wide prevalence of illiteracy and it is also contributing more than forty percent in other remaining zones of the city. The contribution of poverty in female illiteracy is recorded much higher in most of the Zones, namely Zone 1 (70.00 percent), Zone 3 (79.17 percent), Zone 4 (60.00 percent) and Zone 5 (52.63 percent), followed by Zone 6 (40.74 percent) and Zone 2 (22.22 percent). The range of poverty experienced in the case of male illiteracy ranges from 50.28 percent in Zone 4 to 43.71 percent in Zone 6. The share of high cost of education in the three Zones, namely Zone

3 (18.00 percent), Zone 4 (24.61 percent) and Zone 5 (26.28 percent), was registered greater than the proportion of low income, but Zones 1, 2 and 6 witnessed maximum ratio of low income over the high cost of education viz., 21.86, 21.31 and 24.23 percent respectively. The unemployment is also accounting more than ten percent among the economic reasons of illiteracy in the whole city. While the reasons like working since childhood (found in five zones), landless (found in four zones) and supporting family (found only in one zone), are seen to have a very negligible share in the economic reasons of illiteracy.

4.8.3. Biological reasons of illiteracy

Table 4.19 provides information about the biological reasons of illiteracy among the houseless population in Kanpur city. An examination of this table shows that mental illness among the houseless population is a key causal factor of illiteracy, though parents' illness/death and normal illness are subsequent factors in the biological reasons which have a little bit impact on their illiteracy.

Table 4.19: Percent Distribution of Biological Reasons of Illiteracy among Houseless Population in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/Female	Biological reasons of illiteracy			
		Mental illness	Parents illness/death	Normal illness	Total
Zone 1	Male	97.37	2.63	-	100.00
	Female	87.50	12.50	-	100.00
	Total	95.65	4.35	-	100.00
Zone 2	Male	66.67	25.00	8.33	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	75.00	18.75	6.25	100.00
Zone 3	Male	66.67	33.33	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	75.00	25.00	-	100.00
Zone 4	Male	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	100.00	-	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	100.00	-	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	62.50	25.00	12.50	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	70.00	20.00	10.00	100.00
Total	Male	87.84	9.46	2.70	100.00
	Female	95.45	4.55	-	100.00
	Total	89.58	8.33	2.08	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

An analysis of the data in Table 4.19 indicates that the proportion of mental illness is exponentially highest (89.58 percent) among the biological reasons of illiteracy, whereas, it is 8.33 percent by parents' illness/death and only 2.02 percent normal illness determine the illiteracy rate of houseless persons. The respective figures for houseless males are 87.84, 9.46 and 2.70 percent. However, the share of mental illness among the biological reasons for female illiteracy is 95.45 percent and of parents' illness/death is 4.55 percent. Another important inference that may be drawn from Table 4.19 is that out of all biological reasons of illiteracy, mental illness is primarily responsible (100 percent) for female illiteracy in all the zones of the city, barring only Zone 1 where the share of mental illness was registered to be 87.50 percent. In the case of males, mental illness is found to be hundred percent responsible only in two Zones, namely Zone 4 and 5. However, mental illness, as one of the biological reasons of illiteracy among the houseless population, recorded more than sixty percent as a whole and either for females or males in the whole city. The female illiteracy caused by parents' illness/death is observed only in Zone 1 viz., 12.50 percent. The ratios of parents' illness/death for male illiteracy are identified to be 2.63 percent in Zone 1, 25.00 percent in Zone 2, 33.33 percent in Zone 3, and 25.00 percent in Zone 6. The male illiteracy stimulated by normal illness is experienced only in Zone 2 (8.33 percent) and Zone 6 (12.50 percent). Moreover, the normal illness as biological reason of illiteracy among the houseless population is not found to be responsible for female illiteracy at all in any zone.

4.8.4. Various socio-economic reasons of illiteracy

The data of socio-economic reasons of illiteracy among houseless population have been set in Table 4.20. The data shows that the poverty has been identified as the most significant reason of illiteracy for houseless persons and it nearly accounted one-third (28.30 percent) share out of the various reasons of illiteracy, followed by ignorant parents (14.91 percent), high cost of education (11.61 percent), low income (11.16 percent), orphanage (8.44 percent), unemployment (7.32 percent), no interest in education/lack of interest in education (4.29 percent), mental disability (3.84 percent), large family size (2.37 percent), long distance from schools (1.88 percent), gender discrimination (1.65 percent), caste discrimination (1.16 percent) and others (3.08 percent). Other reasons being sum of religious discrimination, absence of schools, need of family support, worker since childhood, parents' death and illness, father substance abuse, fear of teacher, self-substance abuse, disputes in schools, landlessness, illness and divorced/separated parents, are also significant reasons of illiteracy.

Table 4.20: Percent Distribution of Socio-Economic Reasons of Illiteracy among Houseless Population in Kanpur City

Socio-economic reasons of illiteracy among the houseless population															
Zones	M/F /T	Poverty	Ignorant parents	High cost of education	Low income	Orphans	Unemployment	No interest of education	Mental disability	Large family	Long distance of schools	Gender discrimination	Caste discrimination	Others	Total
Zone 1	M	29.97	15.82	10.84	14.03	8.16	7.65	2.04	4.72	1.15	1.91	-	1.28	2.42	100.00
	F	25.00	17.86	3.57	5.36	7.14	1.79	1.79	12.50	1.79	8.93	12.50	-	1.79	100.00
	T	29.64	15.95	10.36	13.45	8.10	7.26	2.02	5.24	1.19	1.90	1.31	1.19	2.38	100.00
Zone 2	M	30.05	16.39	11.48	12.57	8.20	7.10	1.64	4.37	2.73	1.64	-	-	3.83	100.00
	F	8.00	24.00	8.00	12.00	-	8.00	-	16.00	-	4.00	16.00	-	4.00	100.00
	T	27.40	17.31	11.06	12.50	7.21	7.21	1.44	5.77	2.40	1.92	1.92	-	3.85	100.00
Zone 3	M	27.40	12.02	11.54	11.54	8.17	7.69	6.25	0.96	4.33	1.92	-	2.40	5.77	100.00
	F	41.30	26.09	6.52	2.17	-	-	8.70	2.17	2.17	-	8.70	-	2.17	100.00
	T	29.92	14.57	10.63	9.84	6.69	6.30	6.69	1.18	3.94	1.57	1.57	1.97	5.12	100.00
Zone 4	M	30.13	8.61	14.90	6.62	14.90	8.28	6.62	1.32	3.31	3.31	-	0.66	1.32	100.00
	F	20.69	20.69	6.90	-	10.34	3.45	3.45	6.90	6.90	-	6.90	3.45	10.34	100.00
	T	29.31	9.67	14.20	6.04	14.50	7.85	6.34	1.81	3.63	3.02	0.60	0.91	2.11	100.00
Zone 5	M	28.77	9.43	16.98	7.55	8.49	9.91	5.19	4.25	4.25	1.89	-	0.94	2.36	100.00
	F	20.00	18.00	10.00	6.00	8.00	2.00	-	10.00	6.00	-	14.00	-	6.00	100.00
	T	27.10	11.07	15.65	7.25	8.40	8.40	4.20	5.34	4.58	1.53	2.67	0.76	3.05	100.00
Zone 6	M	25.52	19.23	10.14	13.99	6.29	7.34	7.34	1.75	1.05	1.05	-	1.75	4.55	100.00
	F	18.64	18.64	10.17	11.86	1.69	5.08	10.17	3.39	1.69	1.69	15.25	1.69	-	100.00
	T	24.35	19.13	10.14	13.62	5.51	6.96	7.83	2.03	1.16	1.16	2.61	1.74	3.77	100.00
Total	M	28.96	14.18	12.15	11.80	8.96	7.90	4.25	3.29	2.28	1.97	-	1.22	3.04	100.00
	F	23.40	20.38	7.55	6.42	4.53	3.02	4.53	7.92	3.02	2.64	12.45	0.75	3.40	100.00
	T	28.30	14.91	11.61	11.16	8.44	7.32	4.29	3.84	2.37	1.88	1.65	1.16	3.08	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Note: T- Total; M- Male; F- Female

An examination of Table 4.20 shows that the ratio of poverty as a reason of illiteracy in all the zones of the city is more or less same, as maximum range of difference was recorded between Zone 3 (29.92 percent) and Zone 6 (24.35 percent). The share of ignorant parents being second most important cause of illiteracy in the city was witnessed highest in Zone 6 (19.13 percent), and lowest in Zone 4 (9.67 percent). The percent values of illiteracy due to ignorant parents in other remaining zones stand in between. The difference between percent shares of high cost of education and low income is also recorded very low in the whole city, except in Zone 4 and 5, where their proportionate values are 14.20 and 6.04 percent, and 15.65 and 7.25 percent respectively. Likewise, proportion of illiteracy caused by orphanage and unemployment has been found much more comparable than any other reasons of illiteracy in the whole Kanpur city, except in Zone 4 in which orphanage has the maximum 14.50 percent share against the unemployment (7.85 percent).

Further analysis of the Table 4.20 reveals the fact that the lack of interest in education as a contributing factor for illiteracy among houseless population is experienced least in Zones 1 and 2, and in significant proportion in other four remaining zones of the city. While the ratio of mental disability as a cause of illiteracy is recorded lowest in Zones 3 and 4 i.e. 1.18 and 1.81 percent respectively, the respective figures for Zones 1, 2, 5 and 6 are 5.24, 5.77, 5.34 and 2.03 percent. Moreover, any other cause of illiteracy for the houseless people mentioned in the table individually as large family size, long distance from schools, gender discrimination and caste discrimination is not observed more than 4 percent in all the zones, excluding the large family size in Zone 5 which accounted 4.58 percent.

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Chapter 5

Economic Characteristics of Houseless Population

Economic characteristics of a region refer to the economic aspects of human life like employment, economic activities, income, occupation, per capita income, capital, expenditure, food, labour force, wages, remittances, land holdings, etc. Such characteristics describe and help to assess the relative conditions of different sections of a society like Hindus & Muslims, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, rural and urban population, male-female, slum-dwellers & pavement dwellers, etc. in a particular area such as a city, state or a country. For example, changes in the distribution of income affect the level of houselessness by affecting the price of housing and quality housing. An increase in income inequality around a stable mean may reduce the demand for middle-quality housing and increases the demand for low-quality housing. Households whose incomes have declined reduce their demand for housing, enter the lower-quality housing, and even may render as houseless in the streets. Higher rents for good-quality housing imply a higher cut-off-income level below which houselessness is preferred to conventional housing.

The chapter analysis the economic scenario of houseless population in Kanpur city. It provides detailed information regarding the working and non-working status of houseless population as well as their family members; skilled and un-skilled houseless workers; nature of houseless workers like daily, permanent and seasonal workers; number of working days in a month and duration of working hours in a day; duration of joblessness in months per year; professional and subsidiary economic activities of houseless population and their average daily income, savings, expenditures, remittances, sources of food, etc. in Kanpur city.

5.1. Working status

According to Census of India (2011), work is defined as participation in any economically productive activity with or without compensation, wages or profit. Such participation may be physical and/or mental in nature. Work involves not only actual work but also includes effective supervision and direction of work. It even includes part time help or unpaid work on farm, family enterprise or in any other economic activity. All persons engaged in 'work' as defined above are workers. Persons who are engaged in cultivation or milk production even solely for domestic consumption are also treated as workers.

Reference period for determining a person as worker or non-worker is one year preceding the date of enumeration. The workers who had worked for the major part of the reference period (i.e. 6 months or more in a year) are termed as 'Main Workers', while those who had not worked for the major part of the reference period (i.e. less than 6 months in a year) are termed as 'Marginal Workers', and a person who did not at all work during the reference period was treated as 'Non-Worker'. All those who have been engaged in some economic activity during the last one year, but are not cultivators, agricultural labourers or in household industries, are 'Other Workers (OW)'. The types of workers that come under this category of 'OW' include all government servants, municipal employees, teachers, factory workers, plantation workers, those engaged in trade, commerce, business, transport, banking, mining, construction, political or social work, priests, entertainment artists, etc.

In effect, all workers other than cultivators, agricultural labourers, and household industry workers are 'Other Workers'. However, a person who did not do any work during the reference period was treated as a non-worker. The non-workers broadly constitute students, those engaged in household duties, dependants, pensioners, beggars, vagrants, prostitutes and others (the category of others includes all non-workers who may not come under the above categories such as rentiers, persons living on remittances, agricultural or non-agricultural royalty, convicts in jails or inmates of penal, mental or charitable institutions doing no paid or unpaid work and persons who are seeking/available for work).

5.1.1. Houseless workers and non-workers

The data regarding percent distribution of the houseless respondents¹ in terms of workers and non-workers has been set out in Table 5.1. The data in Table 5.1 exhibits that the ratio of houseless workers exceeds that of houseless non-workers. It has been mainly due to the male selective migration from the rural country-sides to the city for employment opportunities. These rural migrants try their best to get some work, and can do any kind of work, even the petty jobs like cycle rickshaw pulling, load rickshaw pulling, construction works, rag picking, etc., and can be waiters & cooks, street venders, loaders & un-loaders, cobblers, maid servants, etc. The ratio of houseless male workers is recorded much higher than that of non-workers i.e. 87.75 and 12.25 percent respectively. The respective figures for houseless females are 45.28 and 54.72 percent.

¹. The analysis of the data of working status and daily income of houseless respondents has been made separately from houseless households' family members to know their status in this regard.

Table 5.1: Percent Distribution of Working Status of Houseless Respondents*

Zones	Male/Female	Workers and non-workers		
		Workers	Non-workers	Total
Zone 1	Male	86.84	13.16	100.00
	Female	32.00	68.00	100.00
	Total	84.38	15.62	100.00
Zone 2	Male	88.35	11.65	100.00
	Female	40.00	60.00	100.00
	Total	84.07	15.93	100.00
Zone 3	Male	92.06	7.94	100.00
	Female	40.91	59.09	100.00
	Total	84.46	15.54	100.00
Zone 4	Male	80.33	19.67	100.00
	Female	41.67	58.33	100.00
	Total	77.95	22.05	100.00
Zone 5	Male	91.72	8.28	100.00
	Female	50.00	50.00	100.00
	Total	87.86	12.14	100.00
Zone 6	Male	91.28	8.72	100.00
	Female	66.67	33.33	100.00
	Total	88.60	11.40	100.00
Total	Male	87.75	12.25	100.00
	Female	45.28	54.72	100.00
	Total	84.48	15.52	100.00

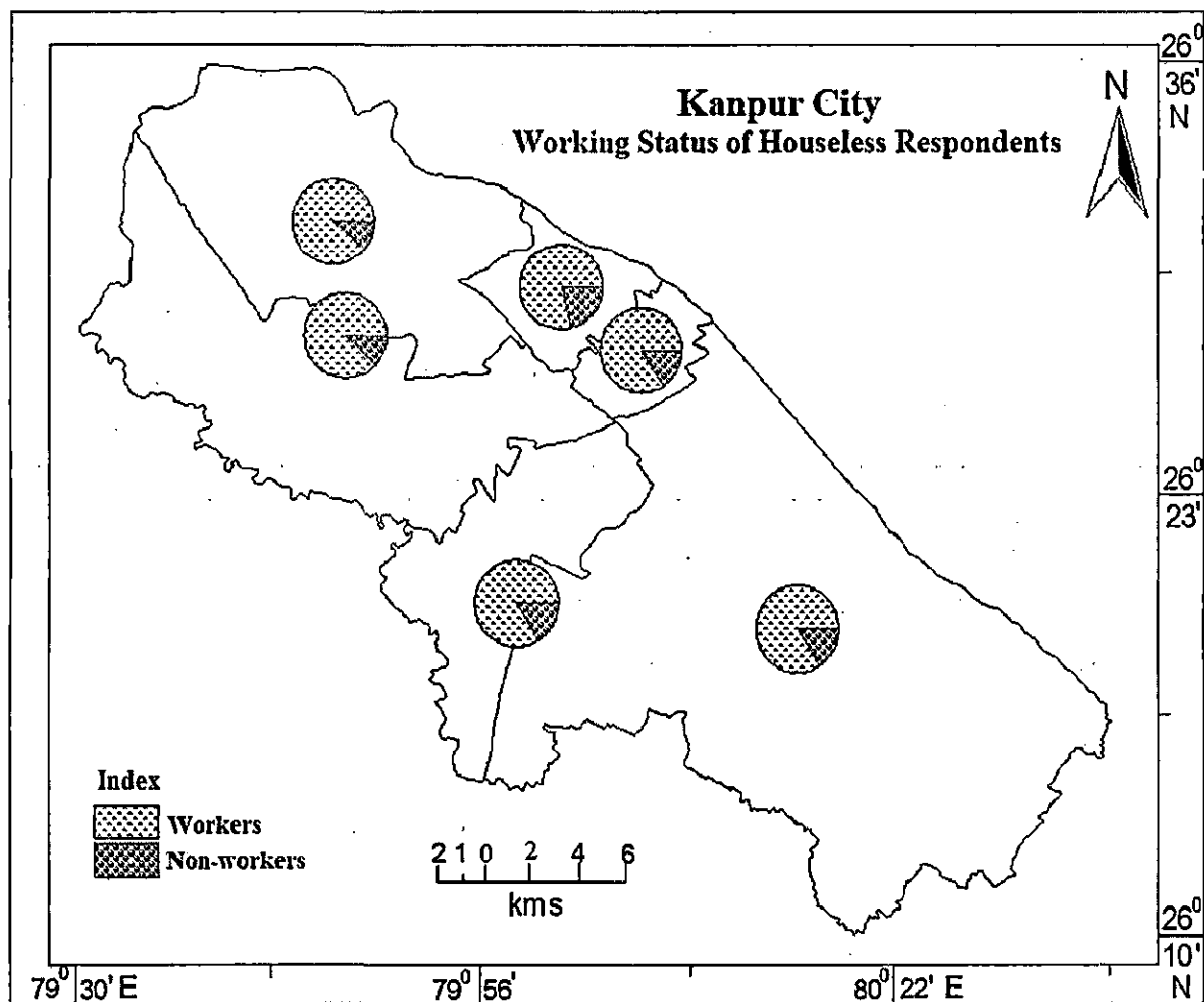
Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

* The data of houseless households' family members excluded in this table.

A close scrutiny of the data given in Table 5.1 provides the information that the houseless workers witnessed four and more than four times ratio to that of houseless non-workers in all the zones of the city, except in Zone 4 which has comparatively lower percentage of workers (77.95 percent) but the share of workers is still more than three times higher than non-workers (22.05 percent) (see Figure 5.1).

Furthermore, the proportion of houseless male workers is still recorded above 90 percent in the Zone 3 (92.06 percent), 5 (91.72 percent) and 6 (91.28 percent). The Zones 1, 2 and 4 also account for 86.84, 88.38 and 80.33 percent houseless male workers respectively, which is more than four times the share of non-worker houseless male respondents. On the contrary, the percent values of 50 and above 50 (66.67 percent) for houseless female workers have been observed only in Zone 5 and 6 of the city. It is because, in these two zones, pavements along the roads and streets are broad and spacious enough to allow the very poor houseless people to bring their families along with them to live on the footpath, enabling their family members, particularly females, to support them by working as maid servants and rag pickers. However,

the percentage of houseless female non-workers in Zone 1, 2, 3 and 4 is much greater than houseless female workers.



Source: Based on table 5.1.

Fig. 5.1

5.1.2. Working Status of Houseless Households' Family Members

The data regarding working status of houseless households' family members as workers and non-workers has been presented in Table 5.2. This table depicts opposite findings to that of Table 5.1 because data given in Table 5.2 demonstrates maximum proportion of non-workers of houseless households' family members in comparison to workers. The high share of non-workers among houseless households' family members has been due to the larger number of juvenile & senile dependents, physically disabled population, as well as females because in Indian society, approval or disapproval of female participation in activities outside the four walls of the house is main social determinant of magnitude of working force and in addition to their un-skilledness and hard nature of works. It would be seen from the table that among the houseless households' family members, the ratio of workers is only one-fourth (25.08 percent)

to that of non-workers (74.92 percent) in the city. Females predominate over males in the working population, for example ratio of workers and non-workers among the female population is 42.20 and 57.80 percent, but for males it is only 21.22 and 78.78 percent respectively. The females' working status in comparison to males is higher due to more requirement of females for household duties such as maid servants in other houses.

Table 5.2: Percent Distribution of Working Status of Houseless Households' Family Members*

Zones	Male/Female	Workers and non-workers		
		Workers	Non-workers	Total
Zone 1	Male	17.02	82.98	100.00
	Female	51.61	48.39	100.00
	Total	30.77	69.23	100.00
Zone 2	Male	13.64	86.36	100.00
	Female	28.57	71.43	100.00
	Total	15.07	84.93	100.00
Zone 3	Male	21.33	78.67	100.00
	Female	44.44	55.56	100.00
	Total	25.81	74.19	100.00
Zone 4	Male	37.33	62.67	100.00
	Female	40.00	60.00	100.00
	Total	37.78	62.22	100.00
Zone 5	Male	17.42	82.58	100.00
	Female	47.06	52.94	100.00
	Total	23.49	76.51	100.00
Zone 6	Male	23.28	76.72	100.00
	Female	34.88	65.12	100.00
	Total	25.09	74.91	100.00
Total	Male	21.22	78.78	100.00
	Female	42.20	57.80	100.00
	Total	25.08	74.92	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

* The data of houseless respondents excluded in this table.

As can be seen in the Table 5.2, Zone 4 has the maximum share (37.78 percent) of the family member workers among the houseless population in the city, whereas Zone 2 has the highest share (84.93 percent) of the non-workers in the same category. The least differential range of workers and non-workers among the houseless households' family members for male population has been identified in Zone 4 where male workers account 37.33 percent and male non-workers constitute 62.67 percent. On the other hand, the highest range between workers and non-workers has been observed in Zone 2 wherein the percentage share of male workers and non-workers is 13.64 and 86.36 percent respectively. Workers, either males or females,

among the houseless households' family members have not exceeded the figure of fifty percent in whole Kanpur city, except in Zone 1 where this figure is marginally crossed by female workers (51.61 percent). It means that the economic dependency ratio among houseless households' family members is observed in a great bulk, with males exceeding females in this regard.

5.1.3. Skilled status of houseless workers

The Table 5.3 provides data on zone wise percent distribution of skilled and un-skilled houseless workers in Kanpur city. Table 5.3 shows that a larger proportion of un-skilled workers (87.39 percent) has been recorded in comparison to the skilled workers (12.61 percent) in the working houseless population in the city. This is because most of the houseless population is engaged as casual workers and labourers doing petty works (rickshaw pulling, loading & unloading, construction workers, rag pickers, street vendors, etc.) which do not require any technical know-how.

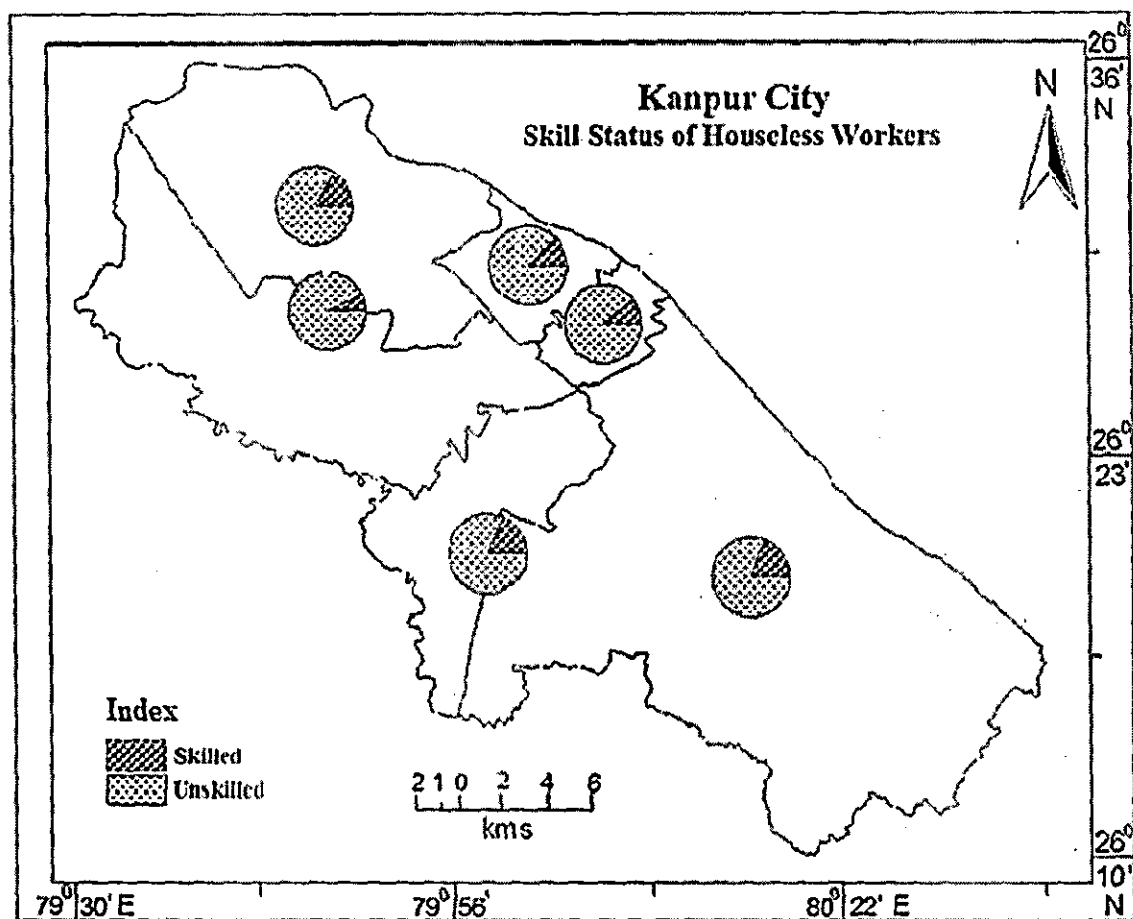
Table 5.3: Percent Distribution of Skilled and Un-skilled Workers in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/Female	Skilled and un-skilled houseless workers		
		Skilled workers	Unskilled workers	Total
Zone 1	Male	11.04	88.96	100.00
	Female	-	100.00	100.00
	Total	10.81	89.19	100.00
Zone 2	Male	18.48	81.52	100.00
	Female	20.00	80.00	100.00
	Total	18.56	81.44	100.00
Zone 3	Male	17.24	82.76	100.00
	Female	22.22	77.78	100.00
	Total	17.60	82.40	100.00
Zone 4	Male	10.88	89.12	100.00
	Female	60.00	40.00	100.00
	Total	12.50	87.50	100.00
Zone 5	Male	6.94	93.06	100.00
	Female	-	100.00	100.00
	Total	6.58	93.42	100.00
Zone 6	Male	15.43	84.57	100.00
	Female	21.43	78.57	100.00
	Total	15.91	84.09	100.00
Total	Male	12.38	87.62	100.00
	Female	17.65	82.35	100.00
	Total	12.61	87.39	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

An interesting fact to be noted from this table is that the ratio of female skilled workers surmounts the percentage of male skilled workers. The share of female skilled and un-skilled

workers is 17.65 and 82.35 percent respectively, while the respective figures for males are 12.38 and 87.62 percent. The high volume of female skilled workers is due to the fact that houseless females possess various skills like weaving (chairs, mats, stools, and decorative items), carving out or chiselling the marble and stones (to make idols of god and goddesses, grinding the slabs of flour and spices) and black-smith, etc.



Source: Based on table 5.3.

Fig. 5.2

Further analysis of the Table 5.3 highlights the facts that the highest percentage (18.56%) of skilled workers has been registered in Zone 2 and lowest (6.58%) in Zone 5 (see Figure 5.2). In all the zones, the percentage of female skilled workers exceeds the percent value of male skilled workers barring Zones 1 and 5 where no female skilled worker has been found. It means that the ratio of male un-skilled workers is higher than the females in the whole city excluding Zones 1 and 5, which accounted for hundred percent female un-skilled workers due to working as rag pickers, maid servants and performing household duties.

5.1.4. Types of houseless workers

Table 5.4 contains data about percent distribution of types of houseless workers in terms of daily workers, permanent workers and seasonal workers. An striking feature that would be

seen from Table 5.4 is that more than ninety percent houseless persons were working as daily workers because they have no regularity either in same type of work or in number of continuous working days due to acute paucity of employment opportunities for these people. Houseless persons used to go per day at the labour markets², waiting there for customers to hire them for some casual works. The permanent houseless workers accounted only 6.68 percent out of the total workers. The term 'permanent workers' here does not mean that they were permanent employees, it just means the regularity of the kind of work they were engaged in, that they were performing same work everyday like cobblers, weavers, hair dressers, blacksmiths and artisans. Moreover, merely 0.34 percent houseless seasonal workers have been identified in Kanpur city who were mainly working as juice sellers and water melon sellers.

Table 5.4: Percent Distribution of Types of Houseless Workers in Kanpur City

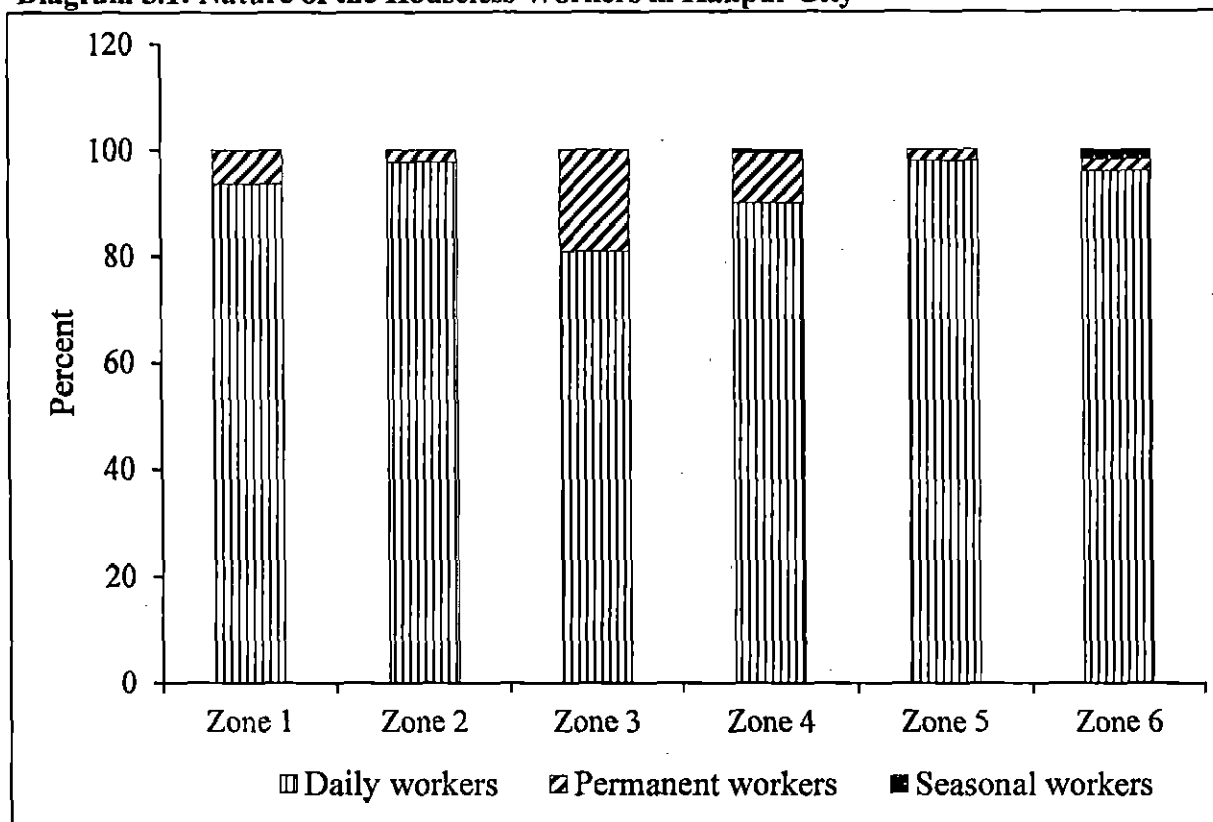
Zones	Male/Female	Types of workers			
		Daily workers	Permanent workers	Seasonal workers	Total
Zone 1	Male	93.51	6.49	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	93.64	6.36	-	100.00
Zone 2	Male	97.73	2.27	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	97.85	2.15	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	81.03	18.97	-	100.00
	Female	77.78	22.22	-	100.00
	Total	80.80	19.20	-	100.00
Zone 4	Male	91.16	8.16	0.68	100.00
	Female	40.00	60.00	-	100.00
	Total	90.00	9.34	0.66	100.00
Zone 5	Male	97.92	2.08	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	98.03	1.97	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	96.25	1.88	1.88	100.00
	Female	92.86	7.14	-	100.00
	Total	95.98	2.30	1.72	100.00
Total	Male	93.20	6.45	0.36	100.00
	Female	88.24	11.76	-	100.00
	Total	92.98	6.68	0.34	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

². Labour markets are the places like street corners, main road-crossings, broad pavements, etc. where the day labourers used to stand for daily casual works and employers hired them, on daily wages basis, come here and pick up workers.

The proportion of daily, permanent and seasonal workers among houseless male population has been registered as 93.51, 6.45 and 0.36 percent respectively. But among the houseless females, 88.24 percent were found to be working as daily workers and 11.76 percent as permanent workers, whereas no single female was discovered as seasonal worker in the city.

Diagram 5.1: Nature of the Houseless Workers in Kanpur City



Source: Based on Table 5.4.

The analysis of Table 5.4 exhibits that Zone 5 has the highest 98.03 percent of daily workers and the lowest 1.97 percent of permanent workers while no seasonal worker has been noticed in this zone. Furthermore, all the zones of the city observed more than 90 percent of daily workers except Zone 3 which recorded only 80.80 percent (vide Diagram 5.1). The gender-wise analysis of data of the daily workers indicates that the hundred percent female daily workers have been found in Zones 1, 2 and 5 while in the remaining three Zones (3, 4 and 6), female daily workers were over-crossed by the male daily workers. The share of permanent workers as a whole, as well as for males, is noted maximum in Zone 3, whereas for females, Zone 4 (60.00 percent) has the maximum share. The seasonal workers have been recognised only in two zones, namely Zone 4 and Zone 6, and that's too only in negligible proportions, i.e., 0.66 percent (in Zone 4) and 1.72 percent (in Zone 6).

5.2. Causes of unemployment of houseless non-workers

The zone wise distribution of data analysing causes of unemployment among houseless non-workers has been given in the Table 5.5. It will be seen from this table that the mental disability as a cause for unemployment³ (see Plates 5.1 to 5.6) among houseless persons has the maximum percentage share (23.01 percent) among all the given causes, followed by lack of jobs (look Box 5.1) and poor health which also have a substantially negative and restrictive influence on houseless population in terms of getting employment, their percentage shares being 21.02 percent and 18.18 percent respectively.

Box 5.1: Respondents' Views about the Work/Employment

1. "I have registered myself in the employment office, I have visited Lucknow two times for employment purpose, but nobody listens to me. People use to throw stones at me, I don't know what I should do now?" (Ram Babu: 47, Kanpur Nagar).
2. "My Mother is a maid servant; she can't afford my school expenses. House is the basic need for me for which I am ready to work in any sector. May you give a job?" (Ram Chandra: 42, Kanpur Nagar).
3. "Our economic condition is very poor and, hence, needs to be improved. Please give us some kind of job, we are not demanding money, gold or silver" (Narender Singh: 65, Unnao).
4. "Just food and work, we do not require anything else" (Ram ji Yadav: 40, Kanpur Nagar).
5. "I need service in driving line because I am skilled in it and have deriving licence. I want to get married, and need a house too to live a normal life" (Dewaker Saini: 40, Kaushambi).

Source: Based on primary survey by the researcher.

Another important information as revealed in Table 5.5 is that 11.36 percent houseless persons do not want to work because of their gender. The houseless females used to assume themselves to be responsible only to take care of household chores or duties and not to perform the work in the external environment out of home being assumed as the inborn duty of male population, with the result of females not preferring to work outside the four walls of their homes even when they are living on the footpath under open sky as houseless.

³. Unemployment is a condition in which an individual has the ability to work as well as willing to work at the going wages but cannot find jobs.

Plates: Causes of Unemployment for Houseless Population in Kanpur City



5.1: Lack of Jobs



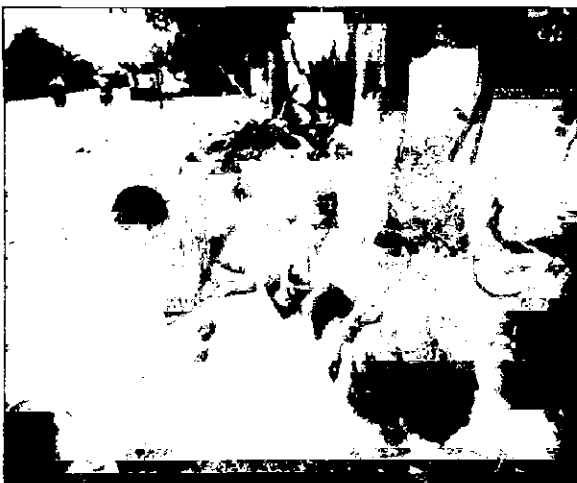
5.2: Being a Women



5.3: Oldness



5.4: Social Disaffiliation



5.5: Substance Addiction



5.6: Physically Disability

Zone Wise Percent Distribution of Causes of Unemployment of Houseless Non-Workers in Kanpur City

Male/Female	Causes of unemployment												Total
	Mental disability	Lack of jobs	Poor health	Being women	Physical disability	Lack of skills	Don't want to work	Doubt on character	Blindness	No family	Lack of information	Oldness	
Male	27.03	24.32	16.22	-	5.41	14.41	3.60	3.60	0.90	2.70	1.80	-	100.00
Female	28.00	16.00	12.00	28.00	-	4.00	12.00	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Total	27.21	22.79	15.44	5.88	4.41	11.76	5.15	2.94	0.74	2.21	1.47	-	100.00
Male	53.33	13.33	20.00	-	6.67	6.67	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Female	50.00	-	12.50	37.50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Total	52.17	8.70	17.39	13.04	4.35	4.35	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Male	14.29	28.57	14.29	-	28.57	-	7.14	-	7.14	-	-	-	100.00
Female	2.78	25.00	22.22	25.00	16.67	-	8.33	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Total	6.00	26.00	20.00	18.00	20.00	-	8.00	-	2.00	-	-	-	100.00
Male	9.38	31.25	26.56	-	9.38	14.06	7.81	-	1.56	-	-	-	100.00
Female	15.38	23.08	7.69	53.85	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Total	10.39	29.87	23.38	9.09	7.79	11.69	6.49	-	1.30	-	-	-	100.00
Male	45.00	10.00	10.00	-	10.00	20.00	5.00	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Female	38.46	-	15.38	38.46	-	7.69	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Total	42.42	6.06	12.12	21.21	6.06	9.09	3.03	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Male	27.78	11.11	16.67	-	33.33	-	5.56	-	-	-	-	5.56	100.00
Female	13.33	6.67	26.67	40.00	6.67	-	6.67	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Total	21.21	9.09	21.21	18.18	21.21	-	6.06	-	-	-	-	3.03	100.00
Male	24.79	23.55	18.60	-	10.33	12.40	4.96	1.65	1.24	1.24	0.83	0.41	100.00
Female	19.09	15.45	17.27	33.64	6.36	1.82	6.36	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Total	23.01	21.02	18.18	11.36	9.09	8.24	5.40	1.14	0.85	0.85	0.57	0.28	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The 9.09 percent houseless population reported that they are unemployed because of their physical disability while 8.24 percent told that they are searching for employment but unable to get the work due to lack of some specific skills like how to cycle rickshaw, how to work in the factories and shops, white washing & painting, etc. The houseless people who do not want to work were registered 5.40 percent, and they included beggars, socially disaffiliated, runaways and throwaways, and substance abused individuals. The doubt on character (assumed by employers), blindness, no family, lack of information about jobs, and old-age combinedly accounted 3.69 percent as causes of unemployment among houseless population.

Further examination of the data given in Table 5.5 discloses that the overall ratio of mental disability, lack of jobs, poor health and physical disability as causes of unemployment is observed greater in houseless males (77.27 percent) than the houseless females (58.17 percent), because unemployment of houseless females has been registered higher share because of their gender (33.64 percent). It would be seen from the table that the zone wise combined percentage of the three major causes of unemployment namely, mental disability, lack of jobs and poor health evidenced the highest in Zone 2 (78.26 percent), with their decreasing percentage shares identified in Zone 1 (65.44), Zone 4 (63.64), Zone 5 (60.60), Zone 3 (52.00), and Zone 6 (51.51). It means that these three factors are responsible for more than fifty percent unemployment among the houseless non-working population in the whole Kanpur city. The proportion of unemployed houseless persons under mental disability as a whole as well as for both males and females has been found to be maximum disability traced in Zone 2 i.e. 52.17, 53.33 and 50.00 percent respectively, whereas the Zone 3 recorded the least respective figures for the same i.e. 6.00, 14.29 and 2.78 percent. The lack of jobs (29.87 percent) and poor health (23.38 percent) as causes of unemployment have witnessed highest contribution in Zone 4 of the city. 'Being woman' as a reason for females to be unemployed has been found in all the zones of the city, with Zone 5 accounting for the highest share (i.e. 21.21 percent). The other causes of unemployment namely, physical disability and lack of skills found to be highest in Zone 3 and Zone 1 respectively, their respective figures for the mentioned zones being 20.00 percent and 11.76 percent.

5.3. Professional activities

Table 5.6 presents data percent distribution of professional activities of houseless population. The data given in Table 5.6 clearly indicates that nearly fifty percent (48.45 percent) houseless

persons were engaged in cycle rickshaw pulling and construction works out of the total houseless population in the study area. The second largest proportion (14.51 percent) of houseless people in the city was found to be engaged in begging activity due to mental & physical disabilities, old-age, social persecution stigmatisation, orphanage, etc. The professional activities which involved more than two percent houseless people were distinguished as load rickshaw pulling (5.20 percent), loading & un-loading (3.47 percent), rag-picking (3.03 percent) serving as waiter in hotels (2.67 percent), street vending (2.53 percent) and owing *Khokha*⁴ (2.31 percent).

The professional activities which were found to be occupying only one to two percent of the houseless population in the whole Kanpur city were observed as following in the descending order, namely white washing & painting (1.95 percent), cobbling (1.30 percent), working in mills/factories (1.23 percent), shop assistants (1.23 percent), black smiths (1.23 percent), cycle repairing (1.16 percent), cooking (1.01 percent) and maid servants (1.01 percent). Moreover, the category of others in which 7.73 percent houseless population was found to be absorbed includes professional activities like teashop keepers, handicraft makers, garage workers, tailors, laundrymen, prostitutes, hair dressers, *cabada*⁵ purchasers, masons, *silpkars*⁶, labour managers, fuel wood sellers, *bhad bhujas*⁷, security men, drivers, *band baja people*⁸, plants sellers, weavers, carpenters and electrician; along with 0.51 percent persons dependent on the income of family and 0.14 percent pensioners.

An examination of the data given in Table 5.6 shows that more than fifty percent (53.00 percent) houseless females were engaged in the begging activity, followed by maid servants (12.00 percent), working at their own *khokhas* (6.00 percent), and street vending (5.00 percent). In other remaining professional activities, the ratio of females ranges either only one to three percent, or registered zero percent. However, houseless males were found to be engaged in all sorts of professional activities, with larger proportion being recorded in the fields of cycle rickshaw pulling (28.17 percent), construction works (23.97 percent) and begging (11.52 percent).

⁴. A small shop made of wood for selling basic goods (consumable goods as tobacco, cigarettes, breads, candy, etc.).

⁵. Scrap dealers.

⁶. Artisans.

⁷. A man who parches grain.

⁸. Bandsmen who play a musical instrument as a profession.

Wise Percent Distribution of Professional Activities of Houseless Population in Kanpur City

Professional activities of houseless population

	pulling	Construction works	Begging	Load rickshaw pulling	Loading & un-loading	Rag-picking	Serving as Waiters	Street vending	Owing khokha	White washing & painting	Cobbling	Working in mills/factories	Shop assistants	Black smiths	Cycle repairing	
15	24.86	12.52	7.18	6.08	2.03	5.71	0.74	0.74	2.76	1.10	1.66	0.74	-	0.55	1.1	
	-	68.18	-	-	-	-	4.55	13.64	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
13	23.89	14.69	6.90	5.84	1.95	5.49	0.88	1.24	2.65	1.06	1.59	0.71	-	0.53	1.1	
24	14.71	11.76	8.82	2.94	-	1.96	1.96	0.98	-	0.98	1.96	0.98	8.82	1.96	0.9	
	-	66.67	-	-	-	-	11.11	-	-	-	-	-	11.11	-	-	-
14	13.51	16.22	8.11	2.70	-	1.80	2.70	0.90	-	0.90	1.80	0.90	9.01	1.80	0.9	
84	34.38	7.81	4.69	1.56	-	0.78	5.47	2.34	2.34	1.56	-	0.78	-	3.13	1.1	
	-	65.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
84	29.73	15.54	4.05	1.35	-	0.68	4.73	2.03	2.03	1.35	-	0.68	-	2.7	1.1	
09	12.15	19.34	3.31	2.76	3.31	0.55	1.66	1.10	0.55	2.76	0.55	1.66	-	1.10	0.9	
	-	58.33	-	-	-	-	-	8.33	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
41	11.4	21.76	3.11	2.59	3.11	0.52	1.55	1.55	0.52	2.59	0.52	1.55	-	1.04	0.9	
13	41.94	8.39	7.10	3.23	2.58	-	3.87	4.52	3.23	1.29	1.94	1.29	0.65	0.65	0.6	
	6.25	43.75	-	-	-	-	6.25	-	-	-	6.25	6.25	-	-	-	-
52	38.6	11.70	6.43	2.92	2.34	-	4.09	4.09	2.92	1.17	2.34	1.75	0.58	0.58	0.9	
52	15.34	5.68	0.57	-	10.23	1.14	4.55	5.11	1.70	1.14	0.57	2.84	2.84	2.27	1.1	
	-	23.81	-	-	14.29	-	9.52	9.52	-	-	-	-	4.76	-	-	-
95	13.71	7.61	0.51	-	10.66	1.02	5.08	5.58	1.52	1.02	0.51	2.54	3.05	2.03	1.9	
17	23.97	11.52	5.60	3.74	3.04	2.88	2.33	2.02	2.10	1.40	1.25	1.25	1.17	1.25	1.0	
	1.00	53.00	-	-	3.00	-	5.00	6.00	-	-	1.00	1.00	2.00	-	-	-
14	22.31	14.51	5.20	3.47	3.03	2.67	2.53	2.31	1.95	1.30	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.16	1.0	

lation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

; M- Male; F- Female

An analysis of the data in Table 5.6 indicates that the proportion of houseless population engaged in cycle rickshaw pulling has been higher than in any other professional activity (see Plates 5.7 to 12) in most of the zones, namely Zone 1 (25.13 percent), Zone 2 (35.14 percent), Zone 4 (40.41 percent) and Zone 6 (29.95 percent), except in Zones 3 and 5 where the construction works were witnessed to be occupying the highest share. A good share of houseless beggars (21.76 percent) was noticed in Zone 4 due to the presence of a large numbers of worship places there which act as the centres of attraction for beggar population. The gender-wise analysis of the data about professional activities of houseless population given in Table 5.6 reveals the truth that females were limited to a few professional activities whereas males were found to be engaged in all kinds of activities. More than fifty percent houseless females in Zones 1, 2, 3 and 4 were found begging, followed by Zones 5 and 6 where they happened to be less than fifty percent but more than in any other professional activities, thus begging being their major means of earning livelihood. In the case of houseless males, cycle rickshaw pulling was recognised as most prevalent activity in the four zones i.e. 1, 2, 3 and 6, except in Zones 3 and 5 where most of the houseless male population was employed in the construction works.

5.4. Subsidiary professional activities

The data about the subsidiary professional activities of houseless population is set out in Table 5.7. It may be seen from Table 5.7 that the high ratio of houseless population who, instead of/apart from their regular main works or in slack seasons, engaged themselves in subsidiary activities was identified in the casual works (30.09 percent), followed by begging (27.43 percent), loading & un-loading (18.58 percent), rickshaw pulling (13.27 percent), street vending (4.42 percent), cooking (4.42 percent) and others (1.76 percent), wherein the category of others involves driving horse carts (0.88 percent) and *jholachhap doctors*⁹ (0.88 percent).

Another important feature that can be noticed from the data in Table 5.7 is that the houseless females engaged in subsidiary activities in the whole Kanpur city were observed to be involved in begging activity as well, apart from their regular main works. In the subsidiary professional activities, the ratio of houseless males in each activity is noted exact equal in figure to the total subsidiary professional activities of houseless people in each zone because females were only found in begging activity as hundred percent in Zone 3.

⁹. Quack is an untrained person who pretends to be a physician and who dispenses medical advice.

Plates: Professional Activities of Houseless Population in Kanpur City



5.7: Begging



5.8: Owning Small Shop (Khokha)



5.9: Cycle Rickshaw Pulling



5.10: Rag Picking



5.11: Cobbling



5.12: Street Vending

The higher proportion of houseless persons engaged in casual works and loading & unloading was witnessed in Zone 1, which accounted 40.00 and 26.67 percent respectively and 44.44 percent each in Zone 5. The fifty percent of houseless people in Zone 2 were working as rickshaw pullers while in Zone 3, 86.36 percent persons opted begging as subsidiary activity.

Table 5.7: Percent Distribution of Subsidiary Professional Activities of Houseless Population in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/ Female	Subsidiary professional activities of houseless population							
		Casual works	Begging	Loading & un-loading	Rickshaw pulling	Street Vending	Cooking	Others	Total
Zone 1	Male	40.00	4.44	26.67	13.33	-	11.11	4.44	100.00
	Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	40.00	4.44	26.67	13.33	-	11.11	4.44	100.00
Zone 2	Male	16.67	16.67	-	50.00	16.67	-	-	100.00
	Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	16.67	16.67	-	50.00	16.67	-	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	4.76	85.71	-	4.76	4.76	-	-	100.00
	Female	-	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	4.55	86.36	-	4.55	4.55	-	-	100.00
Zone 4	Male	6.67	53.33	6.67	33.33	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	6.67	53.33	6.67	33.33	-	-	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	44.44	5.56	44.44	-	5.56	-	-	100.00
	Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	44.44	5.56	44.44	-	5.56	-	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	71.43	-	-	-	28.57	-	-	100.00
	Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	71.43	-	-	-	28.57	-	-	100.00
Total	Male	30.36	26.79	18.75	13.39	4.46	4.46	1.78	100.00
	Female	-	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	30.09	27.43	18.58	13.27	4.42	4.42	1.76	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The total houseless population of Zone 6 working in subsidiary professional activities was evidenced only in the category of casual works (71.43 percent) and street vending (28.57 percent). In Zone 4, the begging and rickshaw pulling in the subsidiary activities accounted for 53.33 and 33.33 percent respectively.

5.5. Number of working days in a month

Table 5.8 presents the percent distribution of data regarding number of working days in a month or the availability of work for the houseless population in the Kanpur city. Table 5.8

shows that more than fifty percent houseless workers have work all through the month. While only 3.62 percent persons are getting 29-25 days work in a month, the persons who got 24-20 and 19-15 days work per month are recorded 12.36 and 10.05 percent respectively. The proportion of houseless persons who remained/remain jobless for the entire month is registered 13.74 percent.

Table 5.8: Percent Distribution of Number of Working Days in a Month for Houseless Working Population in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/ Female	Number of working days in a month							Total
		Full month	29-25	24-20	19-15	14-10	Below 5	No work	
Zone 1	Male	47.93	3.76	11.65	13.91	9.02	1.69	12.03	100.00
	Female	28.00	-	4.00	-	4.00	-	64.00	100.00
	Total	47.04	3.59	11.31	13.29	8.80	1.62	14.36	100.00
Zone 2	Male	55.34	2.91	12.62	13.59	1.94	0.97	12.62	100.00
	Female	20.00	-	-	10.00	-	-	70.00	100.00
	Total	52.21	2.65	11.50	13.27	1.77	0.88	17.70	100.00
Zone 3	Male	57.14	1.59	23.02	11.11	2.38	-	4.76	100.00
	Female	95.45	-	-	-	-	-	4.55	100.00
	Total	62.84	1.35	19.59	9.46	2.03	-	4.73	100.00
Zone 4	Male	70.33	1.10	6.04	3.85	-	0.55	18.13	100.00
	Female	41.67	-	-	-	-	-	58.33	100.00
	Total	68.56	1.03	5.67	3.61	-	0.52	20.62	100.00
Zone 5	Male	35.03	7.64	23.57	16.56	8.28	-	8.92	100.00
	Female	37.50	-	-	-	-	12.50	50.00	100.00
	Total	35.26	6.94	21.39	15.03	7.51	1.16	12.72	100.00
Zone 6	Male	72.16	6.25	10.23	1.70	0.57	1.14	7.95	100.00
	Female	68.18	-	-	-	-	-	31.82	100.00
	Total	71.72	5.56	9.09	1.52	0.51	1.01	10.61	100.00
Total	Male	54.39	3.92	13.32	10.82	5.25	1.02	11.29	100.00
	Female	52.34	-	0.93	0.93	0.93	1.87	42.99	100.00
	Total	54.23	3.62	12.36	10.05	4.92	1.08	13.74	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Further examination of data given in Table 5.8 exhibits that the largest proportion of houseless females (95.33 percent) falls under two categories, namely 'full month work' (52.34 percent) and 'no work' (42.99 percent). On the other hand, the highest ratio of males is observed in full month work category (54.39 percent), while in other categories it normally ranges from one to ten percent. Table 5.8 depicts that the percentage of houseless population working throughout the month varies from the highest (71.72 percent) in Zone 6 to the lowest (35.26 percent) in Zone 5, with most of the zones witnessing more than fifty percent persons to have access to the full month work in the city. In addition, the ratio of houseless females

who have full month job exceeds that of males in Zone 3 (95.45 percent) and Zone 5 (37.50 percent), whereas in other remaining zones, males are occupying the first position in regarding full month work in the city.

Another major proportion of houseless people falls under the the category of 'no work' for the whole month. The highest number of houseless people who are not getting any work in a month is found in Zone 4 (20.62 percent), followed by Zone 2 (17.70 percent), Zone 1 (14.36 percent), Zone 5 (12.72 percent), and Zone 6 (10.61 percent), leading to the lowest in Zone 3 (4.73 percent). Barring a few exceptions, the houseless males are identified in each category in terms of number of working days per month. However, the share of females is found to be zero in all other categories except in the categories of full month work and no work in Zones 3, 4 and 5. In the remaining zones, they registered their presence in different categories as follows: 24-20 (4.00 percent) & 14-10 (4.00 percent) in Zone 1, 19-15 (10.00 percent) in Zone 2 and below 5 (12.50 percent) in Zone 5.

5.6. Number of working hours per day

The data about the number of working hours per day for the houseless population has been supplied in Table 5.9. As can be seen from this table, the majority of houseless working population is working for 8 to 10 hours per day, followed by those working for 10 to 12 hours per day, both together accounting for 65.22 percent of the houseless workers. The people having no working hour in a day has been recorded as the third most important category because it is equivalent to the houseless people who have no work at all, which means that the percentage data under 'no work' category given in Table 5.8 is equivalent to the data given under the category of 'no working hour' provided in the Table 5.9.

As per data in the table, the percentage of houseless persons working in the city under different categories in terms of working hours per day, namely from 4 to 6 hours, from 6 to 8 hours, from 12 to 14 hours and above 14 hours per day is accounted 6.96, 8.53, 4.19 and 1.37 percent respectively. As far as the ratio of working hours between males and females is concerned, the proportion of males exceeded that of females in each category, except under the category of 4 to 6 hours per day where women witnessed a higher presence. Zone wise analysis of the data in table shows that in each zone, there is a big segment of houseless persons who are working 8 to 10 hours per day, maximum percentage of such persons being ascertained in Zone 5 (51.45 percent). The respective figures for the Zones 1, 2, 3, 4 and 6 are 48.11, 32.74, 47.62, 33.33 and 35.35 percent.

Table 5.9: Percent Distribution of Number of Working Hours in a Day for Houseless Working Population in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/ Female	Number of working hours in a day							Total
		No working hour	4-6	6-8	8-10	10-12	12-14	Above 14	
Zone 1	Male	12.03	7.52	6.39	50.00	18.98	4.32	0.75	100.00
	Female	64.00	8.00	8.00	8.00	12.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	14.36	7.54	6.46	48.11	18.67	4.13	0.72	100.00
Zone 2	Male	12.62	12.62	13.59	35.92	17.48	5.83	1.94	100.00
	Female	70.00	30.00	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	17.7	14.15	12.39	32.74	15.93	5.31	1.77	100.00
Zone 3	Male	4.76	2.44	8.00	45.60	32.80	4.00	2.40	100.00
	Female	4.55	18.18	13.64	59.09	4.55	-	-	100.00
	Total	4.73	4.79	8.84	47.62	28.57	3.40	2.04	100.00
Zone 4	Male	18.13	4.28	7.65	34.43	27.87	4.92	2.73	100.00
	Female	58.33	-	-	16.67	25.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	20.62	4.00	7.18	33.33	27.69	4.62	2.56	100.00
Zone 5	Male	8.92	-	9.55	55.41	19.75	5.10	1.27	100.00
	Female	50.00	12.50	12.50	12.50	6.25	-	6.25	100.00
	Total	12.72	1.16	9.83	51.45	18.50	4.62	1.73	100.00
Zone 6	Male	7.95	8.52	13.07	37.50	27.84	3.98	1.14	100.00
	Female	31.82	27.27	4.55	18.18	18.18	-	-	100.00
	Total	10.61	10.6	12.12	35.35	26.77	3.54	1.01	100.00
Total	Male	11.29	6.18	8.62	45.14	22.81	4.55	1.41	100.00
	Female	42.99	15.89	7.48	21.50	11.21	-	0.93	100.00
	Total	13.74	6.94	8.53	43.31	21.91	4.19	1.37	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

An important point that can be noted from this table is that to fulfill their daily basic needs of life and for the survival of their families too, a large proportion of houseless working population is working for more than 10 hours per day (i.e. 10 to 12 hours) in order to increase their purchasing power (i.e. income). Nearly one-third houseless workers are working 10 to 12 hours per day in Zone 3 (28.57 percent), Zone 4 (27.69 percent), and Zone 6 (26.77 percent). A close scrutiny of data about the working hours per day among male and female population given in Table 5.9 also reveals that barring few exceptional categories, the ratio of males oversteps that of females in all the zones of the city.

5.7. Duration of joblessness in months per year

The Table 5.10 gives the data about the duration of joblessness in months per year for the houseless population in the Kanpur city. An analysis of the data listed in Table 5.10 provides information that more than fifty percent houseless persons (54.23 percent) availed the employment opportunities throughout the year as given in Table 5.8 also in terms of working

days per month under the category of people having work for 'full month'. On the other hand, nearly one-sixth (13.74 percent) of houseless population is such that it could not access any type of work in any part of the year, thus remaining jobless for the entire period. Table 5.10 also discloses the fact that the duration of joblessness among the people who have been workers but they are encountered by irregularity of work in their life. It means that a total of 32.03 percent houseless workers do not get regular work throughout the year.

Table 5.10: Percent Distribution of Duration of Joblessness in Months per Year for Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Duration of joblessness in months per year								Total
		Full month job	1- 2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10	11- 12	Total Jobless	
Zone 1	Male	47.93	0.64	6.57	9.76	13.70	7.69	1.69	12.03	100.00
	Female	28.00	-	-	4.00	-	4.00	-	64.00	100.00
	Total	47.04	0.61	6.27	9.50	13.08	7.53	1.61	14.36	100.00
Zone 2	Male	55.34	2.91	6.80	9.71	9.71	1.94	0.97	12.62	100.00
	Female	20.00	-	-	10.00	-	-	-	70.00	100.00
	Total	52.21	2.66	6.19	9.73	8.85	1.77	0.88	17.7	100.00
Zone 3	Male	57.14	4.77	16.67	11.90	3.97	0.79	-	4.76	100.00
	Female	95.45	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.55	100.00
	Total	62.84	11.16	10.08	7.14	3.38	0.68	-	4.73	100.00
Zone 4	Male	70.33	2.25	3.83	3.28	1.64	0.55	-	18.13	100.00
	Female	41.67	-	-	-	-	-	-	58.33	100.00
	Total	68.56	2.11	3.59	3.08	1.54	0.51	-	20.62	100.00
Zone 5	Male	35.03	9.99	22.37	9.21	7.24	7.24	-	8.92	100.00
	Female	37.50	-	-	-	-	12.50	-	50.00	100.00
	Total	35.26	9.16	20.24	8.33	6.55	7.74	-	12.72	100.00
Zone 6	Male	72.16	7.95	9.09	1.14	0.57	0.57	0.57	7.95	100.00
	Female	68.18	-	-	-	-	-	-	31.82	100.00
	Total	71.72	7.05	8.08	1.01	0.51	0.51	0.51	10.61	100.00
Total	Male	54.39	3.37	9.74	7.78	8.09	4.48	0.86	11.29	100.00
	Female	52.34	-	-	1.87	-	2.80	-	42.99	100.00
	Total	54.23	3.11	8.99	7.32	7.46	4.35	0.80	13.74	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The proportion of workers who do not get employment and/or work for 3 to 4 months in a year is observed to be the highest (8.99 percent) among all categories of jobless workers. Subsequently, ratio of workers who are deprived of work for 1 to 2 months, 5 to 6 months, 7 to 8 months, 9 to 10 months and 11 to 12 months per year registered 3.11, 7.32, 7.46, 4.35 and 0.80 percent share respectively. Among the houseless workers who lack consistency in work, male workers recorded greater irregularity as they are found in each category listed in the table regarding the duration of joblessness in months per year, whereas the female workers occur

only in two categories, namely 5 to 6 months (1.87 percent) and 9 to 10 months (2.80 percent). In addition to it, the total male workers experienced more than one-fourth (26.42 percent) inconsistency of availability of employment opportunities particularly for the period of 3 to 8 months per year (viz., 3 to 4 months, 5 to 6 months and 7 to 8 months).

An examination of the Table 5.10 indicates that in Zone 5, the maximum proportion of houseless workers who are facing the problem of irregular work are identified in the category of 3 to 4 months per year (20.24 percent) in which male workers accounted for 22.37 percent, but females accounted 12.50 percent in class of 9 to 10 months. The houseless female workers marked a total absence in Zones 3, 4 and 6 wherein higher ratio of male workers are observed 16.67, 3.83 and 9.09 percent in class of 3 to 4 months respectively. In Zone 2 also, females account only 10.00 percent in 5 to 6 months class, whereas in Zone 1 they recorded 4.00 percent in each of the two categories of 5 to 6 months and 9 to 10 months. An analysis of the data in this table reveals the fact that the problem of inconsistency in getting work is more serious in the case of male houseless workers, particularly for those who are jobless for 3 to 12 months (i.e. 3 to 4, 5 to 6, 7 to 8 9 to 10 and 11 to 12 months) in a year.

5.8. Income, saving, remittances and expenditure

Income is one of the significant components for measuring the levels of economic development. Availability of income used to lessen the burden of earning livelihood on all the members of a family, who otherwise are compelled to do any type of work. As all economic processes (production, consumption, export and import, etc.) revolves around earning income, income saving and income expenditure. Thus, to improving living standard of the masses and the process of development as self-sustaining, the income level of the people should be raised.

5.8.1. Daily income of houseless respondents

Table 5.11 depicts the daily income status of the houseless respondents under study. It is evident from Table 5.11 that more than one-third of houseless respondents earned ₹ 150-200 per day. The houseless people who earned a daily income of ₹ 200-250 was recorded 21.06 percent. The combine proportion of the houseless persons who earned ₹ 150-200 and ₹ 200-250 per day constituted 54.63 percent of the total houseless respondents of Kanpur city. The people earning ₹ 100-150 per day are also found to have a significant proportion of 16.21 percent. Besides this, the proportion of houseless people who daily earned less than ₹ 50 to 100 and from ₹ 250 to more than ₹ 300 registered to be 14.47 and 6.08 percent respectively. Moreover, 8.61 percent of houseless people were found to have no source of income for their

survival which is a serious matter of concern as it renders them totally dependent on begging, foraging, and charities to satisfy their hunger pangs

Table 5.11: Percent Distribution of Daily Income of Houseless Respondents*

Zones	Male/ Female	Daily income (₹)								Total
		No income	Below 50	50- 100	100- 150	150- 200	200- 250	250- 300	Above 300	
Zone 1	Male	10.71	3.57	4.70	14.10	38.53	23.31	2.82	2.26	100.00
	Female	42.31	7.69	23.08	19.23	3.85	-	3.85	-	100.00
	Total	12.19	3.76	5.56	14.34	36.92	22.22	2.87	2.15	100.00
Zone 2	Male	8.74	3.88	3.88	14.56	42.72	18.45	3.88	3.88	100.00
	Female	70.00	10.00	10.00	-	-	10.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	14.16	4.42	4.42	13.27	38.94	17.70	3.54	3.54	100.00
Zone 3	Male	1.59	3.97	6.35	18.25	36.51	25.40	3.17	4.76	100.00
	Female	4.55	22.73	9.09	59.09	-	4.55	-	-	100.00
	Total	2.03	6.76	6.76	24.32	31.08	22.30	2.70	4.05	100.00
Zone 4	Male	1.09	19.67	9.29	16.94	30.60	20.77	0.55	1.09	100.00
	Female	8.33	66.67	16.67	-	-	-	-	8.33	100.00
	Total	1.54	22.56	9.74	15.90	28.72	19.49	0.51	1.54	100.00
Zone 5	Male	8.39	1.29	2.58	12.26	40.00	24.52	10.32	0.65	100.00
	Female	26.67	33.33	13.33	20.00	6.67	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	10.00	4.12	3.53	12.94	37.06	22.35	9.41	0.59	100.00
Zone 6	Male	3.98	6.25	12.50	19.89	27.27	21.59	2.27	6.25	100.00
	Female	22.73	22.73	18.18	22.73	4.55	-	-	9.09	100.00
	Total	6.06	8.08	13.13	20.20	24.75	19.19	2.02	6.57	100.00
Total	Male	7.06	6.04	6.27	15.53	36.16	22.67	3.45	2.82	100.00
	Female	27.10	24.30	15.89	24.30	2.80	1.87	0.93	2.80	100.00
	Total	8.61	7.45	7.02	16.21	33.57	21.06	3.26	2.82	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

* The data of houseless households' family members excluded in this table.

Further examination of the data given in Table 5.11 depicts that the ratio of houseless females who have no source of income (27.10 percent) surmounted the share of houseless males (7.06 percent) in the same category. In addition to it, the proportion of houseless respondents earning from less than ₹ 50 to 150 as daily income was occurred to be much greater among the females than the males, but the reverse trend has been observed among the groups earning a daily income of ₹ 150 to more than ₹ 300 in which the males have a higher share than the females.

Zone wise analysis of the Table 5.11 shows that Zone 2 has the highest percentage (14.16 percent) of the people who did not have any source of income whereas the lowest percentage of such people (1.54 percent) was recorded in Zone 4. The respective figures for Zones 1, 3, 5 and 6 were 12.19, 2.03, 10.00, and 6.06 percent. Another crucial point that can be concluded from this table is that the houseless respondents earning a daily income of ₹

150-200 has registered the largest share in all the zones of the city. Apart from it, significant proportions of houseless persons were also observed in the categories of ₹ 100-150 and ₹ 200-350 per day income groups alternatively in each zone of the city except in Zone 4, where 22.56 percent persons were found to be earning below ₹ 50 per day.

Gender-wise analysis of the given data depicts that the ratio of females earning an income varying from less than ₹ 50 to 150 per day exceeded that of males in the respective categories in four zones namely 1, 3, 5 and 6. However, in the same four zones, the reverse condition has been observed among the people earning an income of ₹ 150 to above ₹ 300 per day. In the remaining two zones i.e. Zone 2 and Zone 4, only the females having a daily income of less than ₹ 50 upto ₹ 100 have a higher percentage than the males, otherwise, males overstepped the females in all other daily income categories i.e. from ₹ 100 and onwards. Hence, females are found to have very limited sources of income as compared to males and, therefore, have to face a lot of problems in terms of food, clothes, health services, etc. to support themselves as well as their families.

5.8.2. Monthly income of houseless households' family members

Zone wise percent distribution of monthly income of houseless households' family members has been presented in the Table 5.12. This table shows that more than forty percent houseless households' family members have a monthly income of ₹ 1000-2000 and more than one-third family members were earning ₹ 2000-3000 per month, followed by the people earning a monthly income of ₹ 500-1000 (17.70 percent), ₹ 3000-4000 (7.11 percent), less than ₹ 500 (3.16 percent members) and more than ₹ 4000 (only 0.40 percent members). An striking feature revealed from the given data is that the highest proportion of males in the family (42.86 percent) falls under the group having a monthly income of ₹ 1000-2000, whereas the females are found in highest proportion (43.66 percent) in the group earning an income of ₹ 2000-3000 per month.

It would be seen from the Table 5.12 that a very small fraction of houseless households' family members fall under the categories having a monthly income below ₹ 500 and more than ₹ 4000. The people who have their monthly income less than ₹ 500 were observed in Zone 1 (8.33 percent) and Zone 2 (14.29 percent), while people having monthly income more than ₹ 4000 were identified only in Zone 2 (2.38 percent) in the whole city. More than fifty percent houseless households' family members were found to have a monthly income of ₹ 500-1000 in Zone 4, ₹ 1000-2000 in Zone 6, and ₹ 2000-3000 in Zone 5. Only one zone (i.e.

Zone 1) has been identified in the whole Kanpur city where more than one-third people have a monthly income of ₹ 3000-4000.

Table 5.12: Percent Distribution of Monthly Income of Houseless Households' Family Members*

Zones	Male/ Female	Monthly income (₹)						Total
		Below 500	500- 1000	1000- 2000	2000- 3000	3000- 4000	Above 4000	
Zone 1	Male	25.00	12.50	-	50.00	12.50	-	100.00
	Female	-	-	25.00	25.00	50.00	-	100.00
	Total	8.33	4.17	16.67	33.33	37.50	-	100.00
Zone 2	Male	15.79	10.53	34.21	23.68	13.16	2.63	100.00
	Female	-	-	50.00	25.00	25.00	-	100.00
	Total	14.29	9.52	35.71	23.81	14.29	2.38	100.00
Zone 3	Male	-	25.00	50.00	25.00	-	-	100.00
	Female	-	12.50	43.75	31.25	12.50	-	100.00
	Total	-	20.83	47.92	27.08	4.17	-	100.00
Zone 4	Male	-	70.37	14.81	11.11	3.70	-	100.00
	Female	-	-	83.33	16.67	-	-	100.00
	Total	-	57.58	27.27	12.12	3.03	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	-	8.70	47.83	43.48	-	-	100.00
	Female	-	-	30.77	69.23	-	-	100.00
	Total	-	5.56	41.67	52.78	-	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	-	14.81	62.96	22.22	-	-	100.00
	Female	-	6.25	25.00	68.75	-	-	100.00
	Total	-	12.86	54.29	32.86	-	-	100.00
Total	Male	4.40	23.08	42.86	25.27	3.85	0.55	100.00
	Female	-	4.23	36.62	43.66	15.49	-	100.00
	Total	3.16	17.79	41.11	30.43	7.11	0.40	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

* The data of houseless respondents excluded in this table.

A comparative analysis of the monthly incomes of males and females among the houseless households' family members discloses the fact that the percentage of females in the higher monthly income groups, is greater than males in each zone of the city, barring a few exceptions. This is because a large number of male workers was found to be younger in age than the female workers and they used to get less amount of income for working as rag-pickers, waiters, etc., while female workers being adults and old in age earned a handsome amount of income per month by working as weavers, artisans, maid servants, rag pickers, etc.

5.8.3. Monthly per capita income

Table 5.13 contains data about the percent distribution of per capita income of houseless population classified according to respondents, family members and houseless households. An

inspection of the data given in Table 5.13 exhibits that the houseless respondents who were surveyed in the Kanpur city have more than four thousand monthly per capita income viz., ₹ 4574. The monthly per capita income among males was ₹ 4774, while among females it was found to be only ₹ 2215. The highest monthly per capita income among males, females and total houseless respondents was recorded in Zone 3 i.e. ₹ 5208, ₹ 2935 and ₹ 4857 respectively.

Table 5.13: Percent Distribution of Monthly Per Capita Income of Houseless Population

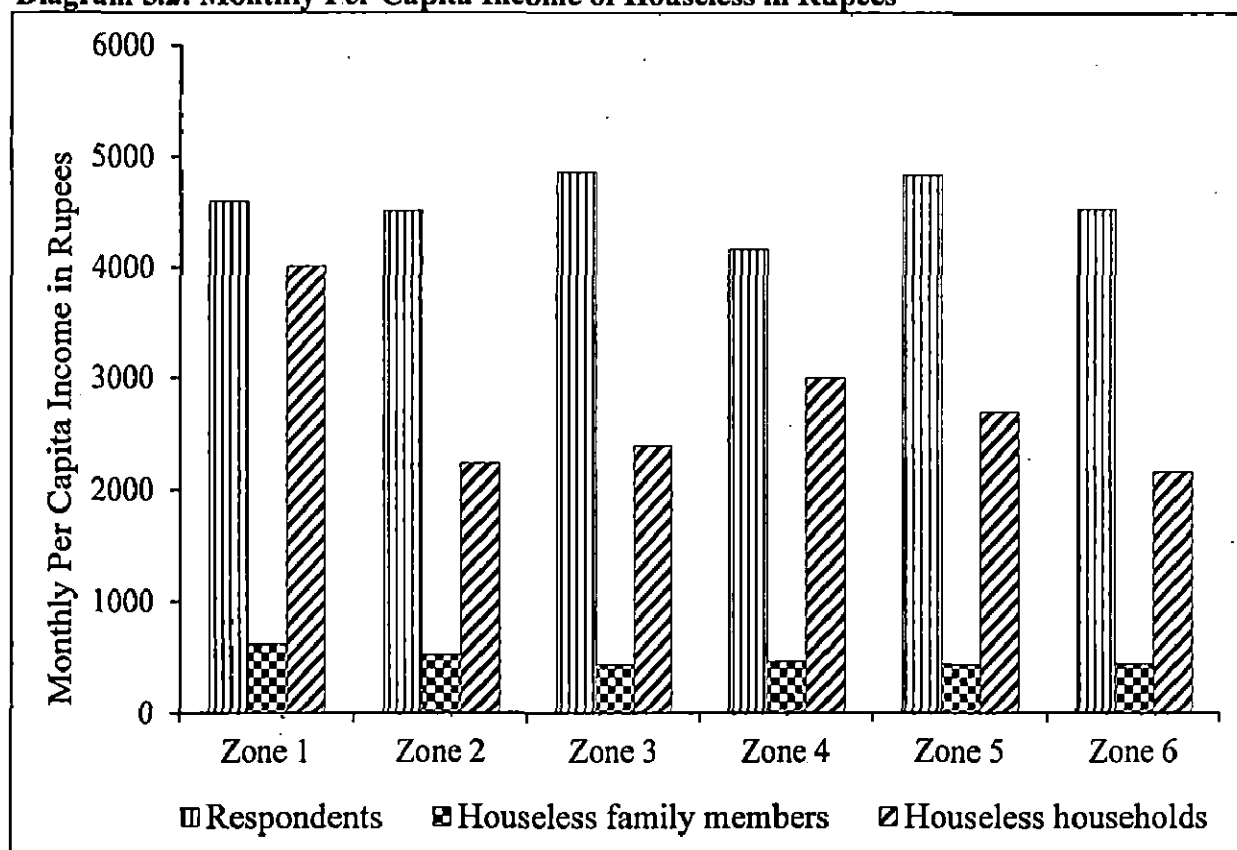
Zones	Male/Female	Per capita income of (₹)		
		Houseless respondents	Houseless households' family members	Houseless households
Zone 1	Male	4720	272	4296
	Female	1950	1100	1427
	Total	4596	617	4011
Zone 2	Male	4850	1167	3494
	Female	1050	99	193
	Total	4513	523	2231
Zone 3	Male	5208	633	3445
	Female	2935	286	744
	Total	4857	431	2382
Zone 4	Male	4291	781	3661
	Female	2125	200	573
	Total	4158	458	2990
Zone 5	Male	5135	494	3481
	Female	1781	365	606
	Total	4825	433	2681
Zone 6	Male	4760	696	3072
	Female	2659	225	533
	Total	4527	438	2142
Total	Male	4774	663	3708
	Female	2215	302	630
	Total	4574	469	2885

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Zone wise analysis also reveals that the male houseless respondents as well as the total houseless respondents in general registered a per capita income of more than rupees four thousand per month in all the zones of the city, whereas the female houseless respondents' monthly per capita income has been found less than rupees three thousand in each zone, with Zone 2 having recorded the lowest i.e. only ₹ 1050.

Further investigation of the data given in Table 5.13 indicates that the monthly per capita income of houseless family members was recorded only ₹ 469 for the whole Kanpur city, which is much lower to fulfill even the basic requirements of life. It means that the houseless family members are totally dependent on their main earning hands of the family, identified as houseless respondents. The range of monthly per capita income of houseless family members in all the zones of the city varied from four hundred to six hundred rupees. However, there were great variations in monthly per capita income among males and females in the houseless families. Among males, the highest monthly per capita income (₹ 1167) was recorded in Zone 2, and the lowest (₹ 272) in Zone 1. The respective figures for females occurred in reverse order in the same zones, i.e. the highest in Zone 1 (₹ 1100) and the lowest in Zone 2 (₹ 99).

Diagram 5.2: Monthly Per Capita Income of Houseless in Rupees



Source: Based on Table 5.13.

An analysis of the Table 5.13 also provides the information that all the houseless households of the Kanpur city have a monthly per capita income of less than rupees three thousand. The range of per capita income per month of houseless households in all the zones of the city, varied from two thousand to less than three thousand rupees, excluding Zone 1 in which it is recorded to be more than ₹ 4000. The per capita income of male houseless households throughout the city is registered to be more than rupees three thousand per month,

except in Zone 1 where it happened to be more than rupees four thousand per month. Similarly, the monthly per capita income of female houseless households ranged from merely hundred to less than eight hundred rupees, with the exception of having registered a monthly per capita income of ₹ 1427 in Zone 1. A comparative analysis of monthly per capita income of houseless respondents, houseless family members and houseless households shows that the monthly per capita income among houseless respondents observed higher in each zone of the city, followed by monthly per capita income of houseless households and houseless family members (vide Diagram 5.2).

5.8.4. Daily savings

The zone wise percent distribution of daily savings of houseless population is given in Table 5.14. The data shows that nearly one-third of houseless population (30.59 percent) have their daily savings upto ₹ 40-80 while more than one-fifth of the houseless persons (20.25 percent) recorded their daily savings upto ₹ 20-40 and very close to one-fifth of houseless persons (19.09 percent) also found to be saving ₹ 80-100 per day.

Table 5.14: Percent Distribution of Daily Savings of Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Daily savings of houseless population (₹)								Total
		No saving	Below 10	10-20	20-40	40-80	80-100	100-150	Above 150	
Zone 1	Male	11.28	2.82	6.58	25.00	29.51	17.29	6.77	0.75	100.0
	Female	48.00	4.00	28.00	16.00	-	-	4.00	-	100.0
	Total	12.93	2.87	7.54	24.60	28.19	16.52	6.64	0.72	100.0
Zone 2	Male	10.68	0.97	2.91	12.62	43.69	20.39	7.77	0.97	100.0
	Female	70.00	-	10.00	10.00	10.00	-	-	-	100.0
	Total	15.93	0.88	3.54	12.39	40.71	18.58	7.08	0.88	100.0
Zone 3	Male	1.59	1.59	3.97	16.67	37.30	26.98	11.11	0.79	100.0
	Female	22.73	-	4.55	9.09	63.64	-	-	-	100.0
	Total	4.73	1.35	4.05	15.54	41.22	22.97	9.46	0.68	100.0
Zone 4	Male	16.39	1.09	8.20	18.03	27.32	18.58	9.84	0.55	100.0
	Female	58.33	16.67	8.33	8.33	-	8.33	-	-	100.0
	Total	18.97	2.05	8.21	17.44	25.64	17.95	9.23	0.51	100.0
Zone 5	Male	8.92	-	2.55	14.65	33.12	30.57	8.92	1.28	100.0
	Female	56.25	-	6.25	12.50	18.75	6.25	-	-	100.0
	Total	13.29	-	2.89	14.45	31.79	28.32	8.09	1.16	100.0
Zone 6	Male	7.95	2.27	11.36	23.86	29.55	18.18	6.82	-	100.0
	Female	42.86	4.76	14.29	23.81	9.52	4.76	-	-	100.0
	Total	11.68	2.54	11.68	23.86	27.41	16.75	6.09	-	100.0
Total	Male	10.26	1.88	6.42	20.75	31.56	20.44	7.99	0.70	100.0
	Female	46.23	3.77	13.21	14.15	18.87	2.83	0.94	-	100.0
	Total	13.02	2.02	6.94	20.25	30.59	19.09	7.45	0.65	100.0

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The lower proportion of savings of income of houseless persons were witnessed in the categories of below ₹ 20 and above ₹ 100, so that the houseless people who saved ₹ 10-20, below ₹ 10 and above ₹ 100 per day accounted 6.94, 2.02 and 0.65 percent respectively. The respective figures with the daily savings upto ₹ 100-150 and above ₹ 150, are observed to be 7.45 percent and 0.65 percent only. Out of total houseless population in the city, 13.02 percent was not having any savings at all. They were just living their life day by day, from hand to mouth, on footpaths, like animals and birds, having to search each new day for the means to fulfill the basic requirements of their lives like food and drink. Females were found to be more prone to this situation than males, their respective figures being 46.23 percent and 10.26 percent.

Another striking fact revealed from the Table 5.14 is the dominance of females among the people having low savings i.e. less than ₹ 20, and of males among people whose daily savings were more than ₹ 20 all over the city. The people having savings upto ₹ 40 to 80 are found in highest proportion in each zone of the city. The second position was occupied by the persons having the per day savings of ₹ 80 to 100, found in three zones namely Zone 2 (18.58 percent), Zone 3 (22.97 percent), and Zone 5 (28.32 percent). In two out of the remaining three zones, the second position was shared by the people having daily savings of ₹ 20 to 40, namely in Zone 1 (24.60 percent) and Zone 6 (23.86 percent), whereas in Zone 4, the people having no savings were found to possess the second position (18.97 percent).

An important feature, as revealed from the Table 5.14, is that under the categories comprising of people with 'no savings' and the lowest savings of ₹ 10-20, the proportion of houseless females exceeded the houseless males in all the zones of the city. On the other hand, in the categories of daily savings upto ₹ 20-40 to more than ₹ 150, males have higher ratio than females in each zone of the city, with an exception in the category of ₹ 40-80 in Zone 3 where females (63.64 percent) overstepped the males (37.30 percent). Thus, in the era of consumerism, these houseless people are unable to save more than ₹ 100 per day because a small fraction of population (8.10 percent) able to save their income more than ₹ 100 per day, in the yawning increasing price level of commodities in the markets.

5.8.5. Daily expenditure

Table 5.15 shows the percent distribution of daily expenditure of houseless population in Kanpur city. It may be seen from the data in Table 5.15 that more than fifty percent houseless population has recorded ₹ 50-100 per day expenditure, followed by people expending less than

₹ 50 (22.47 percent), ₹ 100-150 (15.82 percent), ₹ 150-200 (2.31 percent) and above ₹ 200 (1.52 percent) per day. However, 7.08 percent houseless population is observed to be unable to do any expenditure at all owing to have no sources of income, their survival being totally dependent on charities and foraging. The gender-wise analysis of daily expenditure shows that the proportion of females in the categories of no expenditure, less than ₹ 50 and more than ₹ 200 exceeded the males, but in the categories of daily expenditure upto ₹ 50-100, ₹ 100-150 and ₹ 150-200 the reverse trend has been recorded.

Table 5.15: Percent Distribution of Daily Expenditure of Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Daily expenditure of houseless population (₹)						Total
		No expenditure	Below 50	50-100	100-150	150-200	Above 200	
Zone 1	Male	8.44	27.20	50.28	11.63	1.31	1.13	100.00
	Female	37.50	33.33	20.83	8.33	-	-	100.00
	Total	9.69	27.47	49.01	11.49	1.26	1.08	100.00
Zone 2	Male	8.74	11.65	56.31	19.42	0.97	2.91	100.00
	Female	70.00	-	20.00	-	-	10.00	100.00
	Total	14.16	10.62	53.10	17.70	0.88	3.54	100.00
Zone 3	Male	1.59	16.67	52.38	26.19	2.38	0.79	100.00
	Female	4.55	77.27	13.64	4.55	-	-	100.00
	Total	2.03	25.68	46.62	22.97	2.03	0.68	100.00
Zone 4	Male	1.09	26.78	54.10	16.94	-	1.09	100.00
	Female	8.33	75.00	8.33	-	-	8.33	100.00
	Total	1.54	29.74	51.28	15.90	-	1.54	100.00
Zone 5	Male	6.37	7.64	61.78	19.11	4.46	0.64	100.00
	Female	25.00	37.50	18.75	18.75	-	-	100.00
	Total	8.09	10.40	57.80	19.08	4.05	0.58	100.00
Zone 6	Male	3.41	15.34	51.70	20.45	7.39	1.70	100.00
	Female	9.09	22.73	45.45	4.55	4.55	13.64	100.00
	Total	4.04	16.16	51.01	18.69	7.07	3.03	100.00
Total	Male	5.79	20.81	53.13	16.59	2.43	1.25	100.00
	Female	22.64	42.45	22.64	6.60	0.94	4.72	100.00
	Total	7.08	22.47	50.79	15.82	2.31	1.52	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

An examination of the data given in Table 5.15 depicts that among the houseless population who falls under the category of no expenditure, the ratio of houseless females surmounted the share of houseless males in each zone of the city. The highest percentage of people under no expenditure category for both males and females, as well as in terms of total houseless persons, has been observed in Zone 2, respectively as 8.74 percent, 70.00 percent and 14.16 percent. The houseless persons having a daily expenditure of ₹ 100-150 were accounted for the largest percentage share in all the zones of the city, together constituting

more than forty percent of the total houseless population. In half of the total number of zones in the city, one-fourth of the houseless population (i.e. 27.47 percent in Zone 1, 25.68 percent in Zone 3, and 29.74 percent in Zone 4) was found to be living on a daily expenditure of less than ₹ 50. While the persons with daily expenditure of ₹ 100-150 were identified in maximum proportion in the Zone 5 (19.08 percent), the greater share of houseless people having per day expenditure of ₹ 150-200 (7.07 percent) and more than ₹ 200 (3.03 percent) was reported in Zone 6.

The gender-wise scrutiny of the data presented in Table 5.15 exhibits that in the category of ₹ 50-100 daily expenditure, more than fifty percent share is occupied by males in the all zones of the city, whereas in the category of less than ₹ 50 per day expenditure, females registered more than three-fourth share in Zone 3 (77.27 percent) and Zone 4 (75.00 percent). The daily expenditure of females was found to be more limited than males, mostly falling under the category of less than ₹ 50. Another daily expenditure category in which the proportion of houseless females exceeded that of houseless males was of above ₹ 200, mainly because in these families females were found to be the head of the houseless households.

5.8.6. Frequency of remittances

Table 5.16 provides the data about the frequency of remittances¹⁰ made by the houseless population to their respective families. The data given in this table shows that more than forty percent houseless people regularly remitted money to their homes while nearly forty percent houseless population did not remit any amount due to no savings, high price level, living the life of houseless with their families, social stigmatisation, mental and physical disabilities, old-age, orphanage, or because of being divorced, separated, widowed, runaways, throwaways, having no family, etc. The frequency of remittances, both regular and irregular, was found higher among the houseless males than the females, along with females having recorded an extraordinarily higher percentage (more than three-fourth i.e. 79.51 percent) than males (i.e. 35.53 percent) in the category of 'no remittances' at all. The low frequency of remittances among the houseless females was either because they have their families living with them in

¹⁰. A remittance is a transfer of money by a person to someone at a distance; usually it refers to money sent from one country to the other by individuals. The ones that mostly do so are foreign workers that send money back to their families in their home country. But here, term 'remittance' is used for a transfer of money by the houseless workers to their respective families within the country excluding Nepal and Bangladesh.

the city itself or because they were socially marginalised (viz., divorced, separated, widowed, aged, orphans, runaways, throwaways, socially stigmatized, mentally and physically disabled, etc.), or have no family.

Table 5.16: Percent Distribution of Frequency of Remittances by Houseless Population

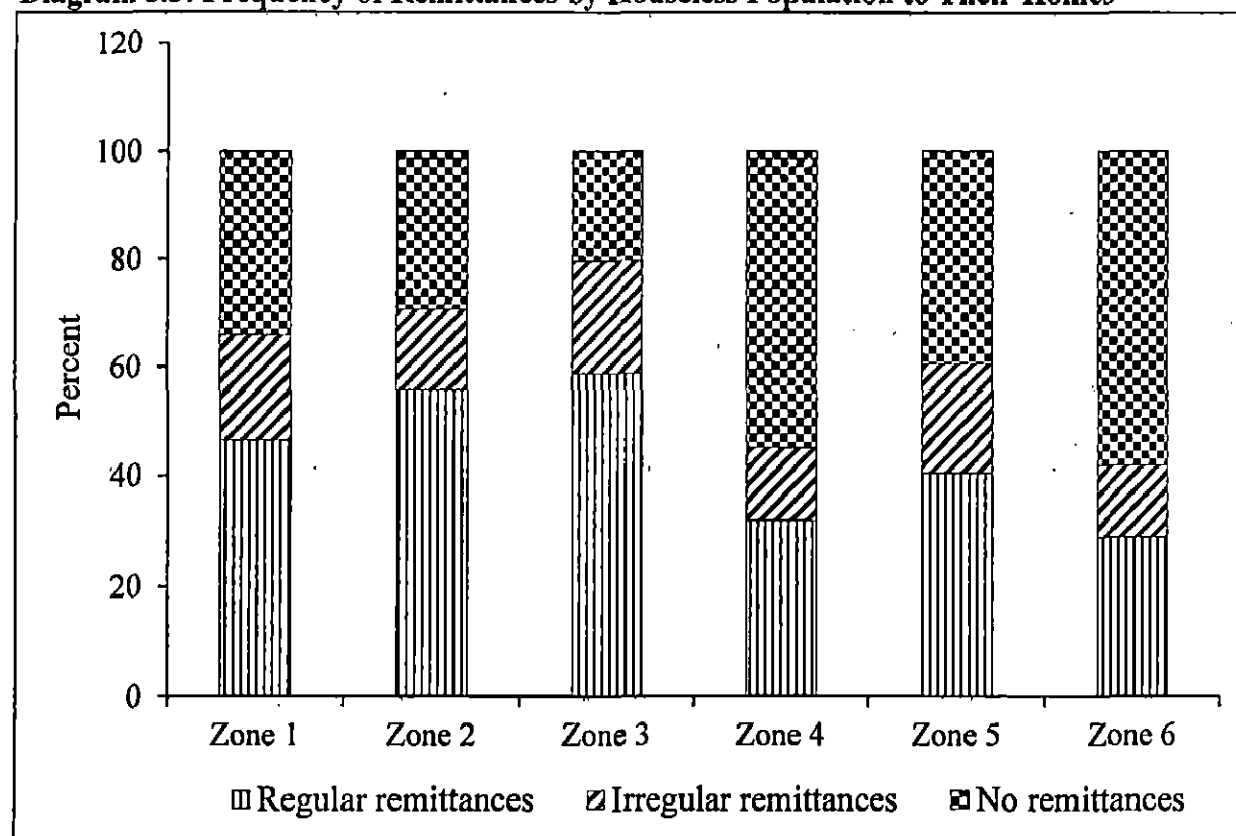
Zones	Male/Female	Frequency of remittances			
		Regular remittances	Irregular remittances	No remittances	Total
Zone 1	Male	47.63	20.12	32.26	100.00
	Female	20.00	8.00	72.00	100.00
	Total	46.38	19.57	34.06	100.00
Zone 2	Male	60.19	16.50	23.30	100.00
	Female	10.00	-	90.00	100.00
	Total	55.75	15.04	29.20	100.00
Zone 3	Male	57.14	24.60	18.25	100.00
	Female	68.18	-	31.82	100.00
	Total	58.78	20.95	20.27	100.00
Zone 4	Male	36.61	15.30	48.09	100.00
	Female	-	-	100.00	100.00
	Total	31.90	13.33	54.76	100.00
Zone 5	Male	44.59	22.29	33.12	100.00
	Female	-	-	100.00	100.00
	Total	40.46	20.23	39.31	100.00
Zone 6	Male	32.39	13.64	53.98	100.00
	Female	-	9.09	90.91	100.00
	Total	28.79	13.13	58.08	100.00
Total	Male	45.52	18.94	35.53	100.00
	Female	17.21	3.28	79.51	100.00
	Total	43.04	17.57	39.38	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Further examination of Table 5.16 exhibits that the highest frequency of regular remittances by the houseless population occur in Zone 3 (58.78 percent), and the lowest in Zone 6 (28.79 percent). Similar trend is observed in the case of irregular remittances as well, having recorded the highest frequency again in Zone 3 (20.95 percent), and the lowest in Zone 6 (13.13 percent) (vide Diagram 5.3). The highest frequency in the category of regular remittances is registered by houseless females in Zone 3 (68.18 percent), which is higher than that registered by males in the respective zone as well as in any other zone. However, males overstepped females in all other zones, with females having recorded lower frequencies in Zones 1 and 2, and a total absence in the remaining zones namely Zone 4, Zone 5, and Zone 6. In the category of irregular remittances, the ratio of houseless males surmounted the share of

females in Zones 1 and 6, where women registered a presence. In the remaining four zones, not a single woman was found to be remitting any amount of money.

Diagram 5.3: Frequency of Remittances by Houseless Population to Their Homes



Source: Based on Table 5.16.

The proportion of houseless people who were unable to remit or never remitted any amount of money to their homes was accounted the highest (58.08 percent) in Zone 6 which also witnessed the highest percentage of males (53.98 percent) under the category of 'no remittances'. Moreover, females have recorded hundred percent share in Zones 4 and 5 among the population who never remitted money. Among the houseless persons who have never remitted money to their homes, the proportion of houseless female population transcended the houseless male population in the whole Kanpur city.

5.8.7. Monthly remittances

The data regarding the amount of per month remittances made by houseless population has been presented in Table 5.17. The Table 5.17 envisages that nearly sixty percent houseless population regularly remitted a share of their income per month to home while about forty percent did never remit anything. More than thirteen percent houseless population has been found remitting income to their homes in each of the category of ₹ 1000-1500 and ₹ 1500-2000 per month. The subsequent categories of remittances in descending proportion have been

amounted ₹ 2000-2500 (11.05 percent), ₹ 2500-3000 (8.60 percent), ₹ 3000-3500 (5.49 percent), above ₹ 3500 (3.68 percent) and below ₹ 500 (0.65 percent). Among the houseless population who did not remit, females accounted for more than double of the share of males. The houseless females have been found to remit their income per month upto the limit of ₹ 2000-2500 and in onwards categories females' share has been recorded zero or nil. On the contrary, males registered their presence in each class of per month remittances which ranges from less than ₹ 500 to more than ₹ 3500, wherein the highest percentage (14.33percent) was accounted under the range of ₹ 1500-2000 per month.

Table 5.17: Percent Distribution of per Month Remittances by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Amount of remittances per month (₹)									Total
		No Remittances	Below 500	500-1000	1000-1500	1500-2000	2000-2500	2500-3000	3000-3500	Above 3500	
Zone 1	Male	32.26	-	5.08	17.11	15.04	11.65	7.14	7.14	4.89	100.00
	Female	72.00	4.00	16.00	-	4.00	4.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	34.06	0.18	5.57	16.34	14.54	11.31	6.82	6.82	4.67	100.00
Zone 2	Male	23.30	-	6.86	13.73	16.67	14.71	13.73	7.84	2.94	100.00
	Female	90.00	-	-	10.00	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	29.20	-	6.25	13.39	15.18	13.39	12.50	7.14	2.68	100.00
Zone 3	Male	18.25	3.17	7.94	9.52	17.46	19.05	18.25	2.38	3.97	100.00
	Female	31.82	-	-	63.64	4.55	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	20.27	2.70	6.76	17.57	15.54	16.22	15.54	2.03	3.38	100.00
Zone 4	Male	48.09	0.55	3.28	4.37	8.74	13.66	9.84	8.74	2.73	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	54.76	0.51	3.08	4.10	8.21	12.82	9.23	8.21	2.56	100.00
Zone 5	Male	33.12	0.85	7.59	16.46	12.03	9.49	8.86	4.43	6.33	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	39.31	0.80	6.90	14.94	10.92	8.62	8.05	4.02	5.75	100.00
Zone 6	Male	53.98	0.57	1.70	10.80	16.48	6.25	6.82	2.27	1.14	100.00
	Female	90.91	-	-	9.09	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	58.08	0.51	1.52	10.61	14.65	5.56	6.06	2.02	1.01	100.00
Total	Male	35.53	0.69	5.09	13.31	14.33	11.90	9.32	5.95	3.99	100.00
	Female	79.51	0.93	3.74	15.89	1.87	0.93	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	39.38	0.65	4.99	13.51	13.37	11.05	8.60	5.49	3.68	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Apart from the category of no remittances, the proportion of houseless population falling under the group of ₹ 1000-1500 remittances per month is registered as the highest in three zones of the city namely in Zone 1 (16.34 percent), Zone 3 (17.57 percent), and Zone 5

(14.94 percent). In the other two zones namely Zone 2 and Zone 6, the people remitting upto ₹ 1500-2000 per month scored the highest percentage with 15.18 and 14.65 percent respectively. The remaining zone i.e. Zone 4 has recorded highest ratio (12.82 percent) under the category of ₹ 2000-2500 per month remittances. A close scrutiny of the data discloses the fact that the majority of houseless population in the city has been remitting its income to home within the limit of ₹ 2000, with only a very small fraction being able to cross this limit. Moreover, the two categories viz., below ₹ 500 and above ₹ 3500, have registered a very low share among the houseless population in all the zones of the city.

Again excluding the 'no remittances' category, a zone-wise comparative analysis of remittances by males and females shows that, no female has been witnessed under any remitting category in Zones 4 and 5, thus registering a total absense of females there. In Zones 2 and 6 also, females are found to be contributing only under one category i.e. of ₹ 1000-1500, registering a share of 10.00 and 9.09 percent respectively. It is only in Zone 1 where the females marked a considerable presence by appearing under the four categories of per month remittances, namely in categories of below ₹ 500 (4.00 percent), ₹ 500-1000 (16.00 percent), ₹ 1500-2000 (4.00 percent), and ₹ 2000-2500 (4.00 percent again). Contrary to this, the houseless male population has been identified to have share in per month remittances under all categories all over the city, except in the remittances group of below ₹ 500 only in two zones i.e. Zone 1 and Zone 2. The highest share of remittances by males was observed in Zone 3 under the category of ₹ 1500-2000 (17.46 percent).

5.8.8. Monthly expenditure on food

Table 5.18 provides information about the percent distribution of per month expenditure on food by houseless population. It can be seen from the table that a remarkable proportion of houseless population has monthly expenditure on food upto ₹ 1000-1500 and ₹ 1500-2000 (27.87 and 31.99 percent respectively), followed by the categories of monthly expenditure on food upto ₹ 2000-2500 (14.95 percent), ₹ 500-1000 (10.76 percent), more than ₹ 2500 (5.05 percent) and less than ₹ 500 (3.39 percent).

Notwithstanding, about six percent houseless population didn't have even a single *paisa*¹¹ to spend on the most basic need of life i.e. food, and to satisfy their hunger pangs, they have to depend on various types of charities provided or offered by others such as *Sadka*¹²,

¹¹ . A fractional monetary unit in Bangladesh and India and Nepal and Pakistan.

¹² . An act of atoning for sin or wrongdoing especially by appeasing god.

*Zakaat*¹³, *Daan*¹⁴, *Langar*¹⁵, *Bhandara*¹⁶, foraging, alms, etc. More than one-fifth of the houseless females faced a lot of problems to get sufficient food for their survival because they have no money at all, and, therefore, have to depend, more than the males, on food sources offered free of cost by other people. The uttermost ratio of houseless females (29.36 percent) has been identified to have ₹ 500-1000 per month expenditure on food. The respective figures, more than one-third proportion, among houseless males has been noticed in the category of ₹ 1500-2000 expenditure per month, which is more than the double of the monthly food expenditure of females. The ratio of houseless females regarding monthly food expenditure exceeded the ratio of males upto the category of ₹ 500-1000, but the reverse trend has been observed onwards i.e. from ₹ 1000-1500 to more than ₹ 2500.

Table 5.18: Distribution of Monthly Expenditure on Food by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Per month expenditure on food (₹)							Total
		No expenditure	Below 500	500- 1000	1000- 1500	1500- 2000	2000- 2500	Above 2500	
Zone 1	Male	6.03	2.26	8.29	25.24	35.97	16.20	6.03	100.00
	Female	26.92	3.85	26.92	15.38	15.38	7.69	3.85	100.00
	Total	7.00	2.33	9.16	24.78	35.01	15.80	5.92	100.00
Zone 2	Male	8.74	2.91	2.91	42.72	31.07	10.68	0.97	100.00
	Female	60.00	-	10.00	20.00	-	-	10.00	100.00
	Total	13.27	2.65	3.54	40.71	28.32	9.73	1.77	100.00
Zone 3	Male	1.59	0.79	11.11	34.92	38.89	11.11	1.59	100.00
	Female	4.55	-	63.64	27.27	4.55	-	-	100.00
	Total	2.03	0.68	18.92	33.78	33.78	9.46	1.35	100.00
Zone 4	Male	1.09	9.29	18.58	24.59	30.60	13.66	2.19	100.00
	Female	8.33	41.67	33.33	8.33	-	8.33	-	100.00
	Total	1.54	11.28	19.49	23.59	28.72	13.33	2.05	100.00
Zone 5	Male	6.37	1.91	4.46	34.39	29.94	17.20	5.73	100.00
	Female	25.00	25.00	12.50	-	12.50	25.00	-	100.00
	Total	8.09	4.05	5.20	31.21	28.32	17.92	5.20	100.00
Zone 6	Male	3.41	0.57	8.52	25.57	31.82	20.45	9.66	100.00
	Female	13.04	-	17.39	30.43	21.74	4.35	13.04	100.00
	Total	4.52	0.50	9.55	26.13	30.65	18.59	10.05	100.00
Total	Male	4.78	2.90	9.17	28.68	33.78	15.60	5.09	100.00
	Female	20.18	9.17	29.36	18.35	11.01	7.34	4.59	100.00
	Total	5.99	3.39	10.76	27.87	31.99	14.95	5.05	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

¹³. A particular alms given away by Muslims annually at the rate of 2.5% on net property.

¹⁴. A voluntary gift (as of money, service or lenient attitude) for needy people.

¹⁵. Money or goods offered to the poor people at the time of some occasions.

¹⁶. A ceremonial feast with great delight made for many people.

It is evident from Table 5.18 that the largest share (40.71 percent) has been recorded by houseless persons under the category of ₹ 1000-1500 per month food expenditure in Zone 2 in the whole city. The Zone 1 witnessed more than one-third of houseless population under the category of ₹ 1500-2000 in terms of monthly expenditure on food, whereas Zone 3 witnessed the same proportion of population (i.e. one-third) under two categories namely of ₹ 1000-1500 and ₹ 1500-2000. In the remaining three zones (4, 5 and 6), nearly thirty percent population falls under the groups having a monthly food expenditure of ₹ 1500-2000, ₹ 1000-1500, and ₹ 1500-2000 respectively in Zone 4 (28.72 percent), Zone 5 (31.21 percent), and Zone 6 (30.65 percent). Zone wise gender analysis of monthly expenditure on food depicts that the houseless female population has ascertained larger percentage only upto the category of ₹ 500-1000, and lesser in the onwards categories in comparison to houseless male population in all the zones of the Kanpur city, barring a few exceptions like houseless females in Zone 2 (10.00 percent) in the grade of above ₹ 2500, in Zone 5 (25.00 percent) in class of ₹ 2000-2500, and in Zone 6 (30.43 percent) in the category of ₹ 1000-1500 surmounted the ratio of houseless males in the respective categories.

5.8.9. Annual expenditure on clothing

Table 5.19 presents zone wise percent distribution of annual expenditure on clothes made by houseless population. Data in Table 5.19 reveals that clothing is the second most basic need of human life after the food, which provides safety and security from the external environment. Unfortunately, more than seventeen percent houseless population didn't have enough money to spend on their clothing and used to wear old, torn, black, and sticky clothes given by others. The houseless people who have their annual expenditure on clothing less than ₹ 400 and ₹ 400-600 accounted more than fifty percent in the city. The proportion of houseless persons having ₹ 600-800, ₹ 800-1000 and above ₹ 1000 annual clothing expenditure is registered to be 17.37, 7.24 and 3.76 percent respectively.

An examination of Table 5.19 shows that the ratio of females exceeds that of males among the houseless population in the categories of 'no expenditure' as well as 'above ₹ 1000' annually on clothing, but in other remaining categories, lower percentages have been recorded for females. The proportion of houseless population having no expenditure on their clothing has been found the highest (27.18 percent) in Zone 4, with the highest shares for males and females being identified in Zone 4 (24.59 percent) and Zone 2 (70.00 percent) respectively. Among the fraction of houseless population who bore the expenses on the

clothing, more than one-third persons in both Zones 1 and 2 were found to have spent ₹ 400-600 on their clothing per annum, whereas the houseless population in Zones 3, 4, 5 and 6 observed most of their annual expenditure on clothing in the category of less than ₹ 400, their respective figures being 45.27, 46.15, 50.29 and 37.76 percent.

Table 5.19: Distribution of Annual Expenditure on Clothes by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Annual expenditure on clothes (₹)						Total
		No expenditure	Below 400	400-600	600-800	800-1000	Above 1000	
Zone 1	Male	16.67	3.00	33.33	31.27	11.05	4.68	100.00
	Female	47.83	4.35	26.09	8.70	4.35	8.70	100.00
	Total	17.95	3.05	33.03	30.34	10.77	4.85	100.00
Zone 2	Male	12.62	32.04	35.92	15.53	2.91	0.97	100.00
	Female	70.00	10.00	20.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	17.70	30.09	34.51	14.16	2.65	0.88	100.00
Zone 3	Male	11.11	50.00	33.33	3.97	0.79	0.79	100.00
	Female	68.18	18.18	13.64	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	19.59	45.27	30.41	3.38	0.68	0.68	100.00
Zone 4	Male	24.59	47.54	18.58	6.56	1.64	1.09	100.00
	Female	66.67	25.00	-	8.33	-	-	100.00
	Total	27.18	46.15	17.44	6.67	1.54	1.03	100.00
Zone 5	Male	8.92	52.87	19.75	8.28	6.37	3.82	100.00
	Female	43.75	25.00	12.50	12.50	-	6.25	100.00
	Total	12.14	50.29	19.08	8.67	5.78	4.05	100.00
Zone 6	Male	9.77	39.08	21.84	11.49	11.49	6.32	100.00
	Female	22.73	27.27	13.64	9.09	13.64	13.64	100.00
	Total	11.22	37.76	20.92	11.22	11.73	7.14	100.00
Total	Male	15.04	27.41	28.19	18.25	7.52	3.60	100.00
	Female	50.48	18.10	15.24	6.67	3.81	5.71	100.00
	Total	17.73	26.70	27.21	17.37	7.24	3.76	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Among all the zones in the city, it is the houseless people in Zone 1 who have ascertained the maximum share of annual expenditure on clothes in the higher categories of ₹ 600 and onwards (45.96 percent), followed by houseless people in Zone 6 (30.09 percent). The data contained in Table 5.19 denotes that barring the few exceptional categories of clothing expenditure in the selected zones, the proportion of houseless males overstepped that of houseless females among the houseless population who borne the expenses on clothing.

5.8.10. Monthly expenditure on health services

Table 5.20 provides information about the monthly expenditure on health services by the houseless population in Kanpur city. It would be seen from this table that forty percent of the houseless population does not have any option or financial assistance to avail any type of

medical services for their health concerns. The democratic principle 'Health is Wealth', is assumed as a mocking statement by these houseless people. The expenditure incurred on the health of houseless population ranged from less than ₹ 10 to more than ₹ 50 only.

Table 5.20: Percental Monthly Expenditure on Health Services by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Per month expenditure on health services (₹)							Total
		No Expenditure	Below 10	10-20	20-30	30-40	40-50	Above 50	
Zone 1	Male	46.15	5.26	18.76	13.88	6.57	4.32	5.07	100.00
	Female	38.10	9.52	4.76	9.52	4.76	14.29	19.05	100.00
	Total	45.85	5.41	18.23	13.72	6.50	4.69	5.60	100.00
Zone 2	Male	36.89	40.78	17.48	0.97	0.97	1.94	0.97	100.00
	Female	60.00	30.00	10.00	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	38.94	39.82	16.81	0.88	0.88	1.77	0.88	100.00
Zone 3	Male	23.81	54.76	7.14	7.14	3.97	2.38	0.79	100.00
	Female	4.55	72.73	9.09	9.09	4.55	-	-	100.00
	Total	20.95	57.44	7.43	7.43	4.05	2.03	0.68	100.00
Zone 4	Male	44.81	38.80	6.56	5.46	1.09	1.64	1.64	100.00
	Female	33.33	41.67	25.00	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	44.10	38.97	7.69	5.13	1.03	1.54	1.54	100.00
Zone 5	Male	45.86	29.94	7.64	3.82	5.10	4.46	3.18	100.00
	Female	60.00	13.34	-	20.00	-	6.67	-	100.00
	Total	47.09	28.49	6.98	5.23	4.65	4.65	2.91	100.00
Zone 6	Male	28.41	27.28	14.77	9.66	9.09	6.82	3.98	100.00
	Female	27.27	27.27	9.09	18.18	4.55	-	13.64	100.00
	Total	28.28	27.28	14.14	10.61	8.59	6.06	5.05	100.00
Total	Male	40.53	23.87	13.85	9.15	5.24	3.91	3.44	100.00
	Female	33.33	33.33	8.82	10.78	2.94	3.92	6.86	100.00
	Total	40.00	24.57	13.48	9.28	5.07	3.91	3.70	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

An analysis of the data designates that nearly one-fourth of houseless persons (24.57 percent) spend less than ₹ 10 per month on their medical treatment. Likewise, more than one-fifth of the houseless people (22.76 percent) have their per month expenditure on health services upto ₹ 10 to 30 with only a very small fraction of houseless population (12.68 percent) falling under the categories of people having a monthly health expenditure of ₹ 30-40, ₹ 40-50 and above ₹ 50. Houseless males in the 'no expenditure' category and houseless females in the category of 'less than ₹ 10' expenditure on health have accounted identifiable percentgaes i.e. 40.53 and 33.33 respectively, while very small differences have been registered between them in other categories. Three zones of the city (Zones 1, 4 and 5) have recorded more than forty percent of houseless population having no expenditure at all on health problems. In the remaining three zones, i.e. Zone 2, Zone 3, and Zone 6, the subsequent

the highest figures of no expenditure on health by the houseless people are 38.94, 20.95 and 28.28 percent respectively.

Further analysis of data given in Table 5.20 shows that the proportion of houseless persons who spent less than ₹ 10 per month on their health is registered the lowest in Zone 1 (5.41 percent), and the highest in Zone 3 (57.44 percent). The respective figures for males are recorded 5.26 and 54.76 percent, and for females, 9.52 and 72.73 percent. Moreover, houseless population in all the zones of the city has made a very low amount of monthly expenditure on their health services in the categories above ₹ 10, excluding Zones 1 and 6, where the houseless people have witnessed a large amount of expenditure on health services per month.

5.8.11. Monthly expenditure on education

The data regarding monthly expenditure on education by the houseless population in the Kanpur city has been given in Table 5.21.

Table 5.21: Distribution of Monthly Expenditure on Education by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Per month expenditure on education (₹)					Total
		No expenditure	Below 50	50-100	100-150	Above 150	
Zone 1	Male	98.64	-	-	0.19	1.16	100.00
	Female	86.96	-	-	-	13.04	100.00
	Total	98.14	-	-	0.19	1.67	100.00
Zone 2	Male	100.00	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	90.00	10.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	99.12	0.88	-	-	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	86.51	8.73	2.38	1.59	0.79	100.00
	Female	90.91	-	4.55	4.55	-	100.00
	Total	87.16	7.43	2.70	2.03	0.68	100.00
Zone 4	Male	98.36	0.55	-	0.55	0.55	100.00
	Female	91.67	-	8.33	-	-	100.00
	Total	97.95	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	100.00
Zone 5	Male	94.27	-	-	3.18	2.55	100.00
	Female	87.50	-	12.50	-	-	100.00
	Total	93.64	-	1.16	2.89	2.31	100.00
Zone 6	Male	92.05	1.14	2.27	2.84	1.70	100.00
	Female	86.36	-	4.55	-	9.09	100.00
	Total	91.41	1.01	2.53	2.53	2.53	100.00
Total	Male	96.03	1.11	0.56	1.11	1.19	100.00
	Female	88.57	0.95	4.76	0.95	4.76	100.00
	Total	95.46	1.10	0.88	1.10	1.46	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

An striking fact revealed from this table is that the greatest proportion of houseless population (95.46 percent) has been found to have no monthly expenditure on education at all, with only a small fraction (4.54 percent) of houseless people being found to have spent some amount of their income on education. Among the people witnessing no monthly expenditure in the field of education, the proportion of males surpasses that of females while the opposite trend has been recorded among the houseless population who has registered some expenses in this field.

As can be seen from the Table 5.21 that houseless persons of each zones of the city have observed more than nineteen percent share in the total houseless population who have no expenditure on the education sector, excluding the Zone 3 in which the houseless people have accounted 12.84 percent expenditure on education. Further, the proportion of houseless males is higher than the females in the category of having no monthly expenditure on education in all the zones, barring Zone 3 where the ratio of females oversteps that of males.

As far as the houseless population who has been spending some fraction of their income on the education is concerned, reveals the fact that the highest percentages registered in each categories of monthly expenditure in whole city from the category below ₹ 50 to above ₹ 150 are as follows: 7.43 (Zone 3), 2.70 (Zone 3), 2.89 (Zone 5) and 2.53 percent (Zone 6) respectively. Moreover, the zone wise summation percental values of monthly educational expenditure of each category of below ₹ 50 to above ₹ 150 by the houseless population are 1.86, 0.88, 12.84, 2.04, 6.36 and 8.60 for the zones of 1 to 6 respectively.

5.8.12. Monthly miscellaneous expenditure

A detailed account of monthly expenditure on miscellaneous things by the houseless population is given in Table 5.22. This table provides the fact that the houseless people who spend ₹ 200 to ₹ 500 per month on miscellaneous things accounted more than fifty percent proportion of the houseless population. The persons having monthly miscellaneous expenditure less than ₹ 200 and more than ₹ 500 constituted only 9.77 and 27.07 percent respectively, while 5.93 percent of the houseless people were found to have no miscellaneous expenditure in their life at all, they are being totally dependent on different types of charities. The miscellaneous expenditure of houseless population includes the expenditure on things like tea, refreshment items, beer, alcoholic drinks, tobacco, cigarettes, toiletry items, recreational and travelling charges, etc.

An analysis of the Table 5.22 exhibits that the houseless females spent more on miscellaneous things than the houseless males in the categories of less than ₹ 300 but males exceed the females in the categories of more than ₹ 300 per month. In Zones 1, 2, 3 and 4, the largest share of houseless population is found in the monthly miscellaneous expenditure group of ₹ 300-400 while the people in Zones 5 and 6 have made the highest miscellaneous expenditure in the categories of ₹ 400-500 (28.32 percent) and ₹ 500-600 (24.75 percent) respectively.

Table 5.22: Distribution of Monthly Miscellaneous Expenditure by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Per month miscellaneous expenditure (₹)								Total
		No expenditure	Below 100	100-200	200-300	300-400	400-500	500-600	Above 600	
Zone 1	Male	6.77	0.75	8.46	17.11	24.62	15.23	8.65	18.42	100.00
	Female	28.00	4	12.00	28.00	4.00	8.00	4.00	12.00	100.00
	Total	7.72	0.9	8.62	17.59	23.70	14.90	8.44	18.13	100.00
Zone 2	Male	5.83	6.79	3.88	21.36	28.16	13.59	8.74	11.65	100.00
	Female	60.00	-	-	20.00	-	-	-	20.00	100.00
	Total	10.62	6.19	3.54	21.24	25.66	12.39	7.96	12.39	100.00
Zone 3	Male	1.61	4.03	4.84	17.74	20.97	18.55	18.55	13.71	100.00
	Female	4.55	54.55	4.55	4.55	13.64	13.64	-	4.55	100.00
	Total	2.05	11.64	4.79	15.75	19.86	17.81	15.75	12.33	100.00
Zone 4	Male	0.55	5.47	9.84	16.94	24.04	21.86	17.49	3.83	100.00
	Female	8.33	16.66	8.33	33.33	16.67	8.33	-	8.33	100.00
	Total	1.03	6.15	9.74	17.95	23.59	21.03	16.41	4.10	100.00
Zone 5	Male	6.37	0.64	2.55	7.64	23.57	29.94	19.75	9.55	100.00
	Female	18.75	12.5	12.50	12.50	12.50	12.50	12.50	6.25	100.00
	Total	7.51	1.74	3.47	8.09	22.54	28.32	19.08	9.25	100.00
Zone 6	Male	3.41	1.14	2.84	7.95	23.30	26.14	23.30	11.93	100.00
	Female	13.64	-	-	4.55	13.64	18.18	36.36	13.64	100.00
	Total	4.55	1.01	2.53	7.58	22.22	25.25	24.75	12.12	100.00
Total	Male	4.78	2.27	6.43	15.06	24.16	19.69	14.27	13.33	100.00
	Female	19.63	15.88	6.54	15.89	10.28	11.21	10.28	10.28	100.00
	Total	5.93	3.33	6.44	15.12	23.08	19.03	13.97	13.10	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

It is evident from the data given in Table 5.22 that only a small fraction of houseless population have been spending below ₹ 200 (i.e. below ₹ 100 and ₹ 100-200) per month on miscellaneous things, whereas a significant proportion of houseless population did spend above ₹ 200 (viz., ₹ 200-300, ₹ 300-400, ₹ 400-500, ₹ 500-600 and more than ₹ 600) per month for miscellaneous purposes in all the zones of the city. Similarly, category wise monthly miscellaneous expenditure as compared between males and females shows that excluding a few exceptional categories, the proportion of females having monthly

miscellaneous expenditure is recorded higher than males maximum in the groups having no expenditure to those having a monthly expenditure upto ₹ 200-300 while the reverse trend has been observed in the miscellaneous monthly expenditure categories ranging from ₹ 300-400 to above ₹ 600. The highest proportion of males and females has been found respectively in Zone 5 (29.94 percent) under the category of ₹ 400-500 per month, and in Zone 3 (54.55 percent) under the category of below ₹ 100 per month miscellaneous expenditure.

5.8.13. Monthly expenditure for various purposes

The percent distribution of data regarding monthly expenditure for various purposes by the houseless population is set out in the Table 5.23. This table demonstrates the level of expenditure on the two most fundamental and traditional basic human needs, namely food and clothing, excluding the shelter (as needs of shelterless people themselves are analysed here), as well as the expenditure on three modern basic needs i.e. health, education and recreation (recreation being imbedded in the category of miscellaneous expenditure).

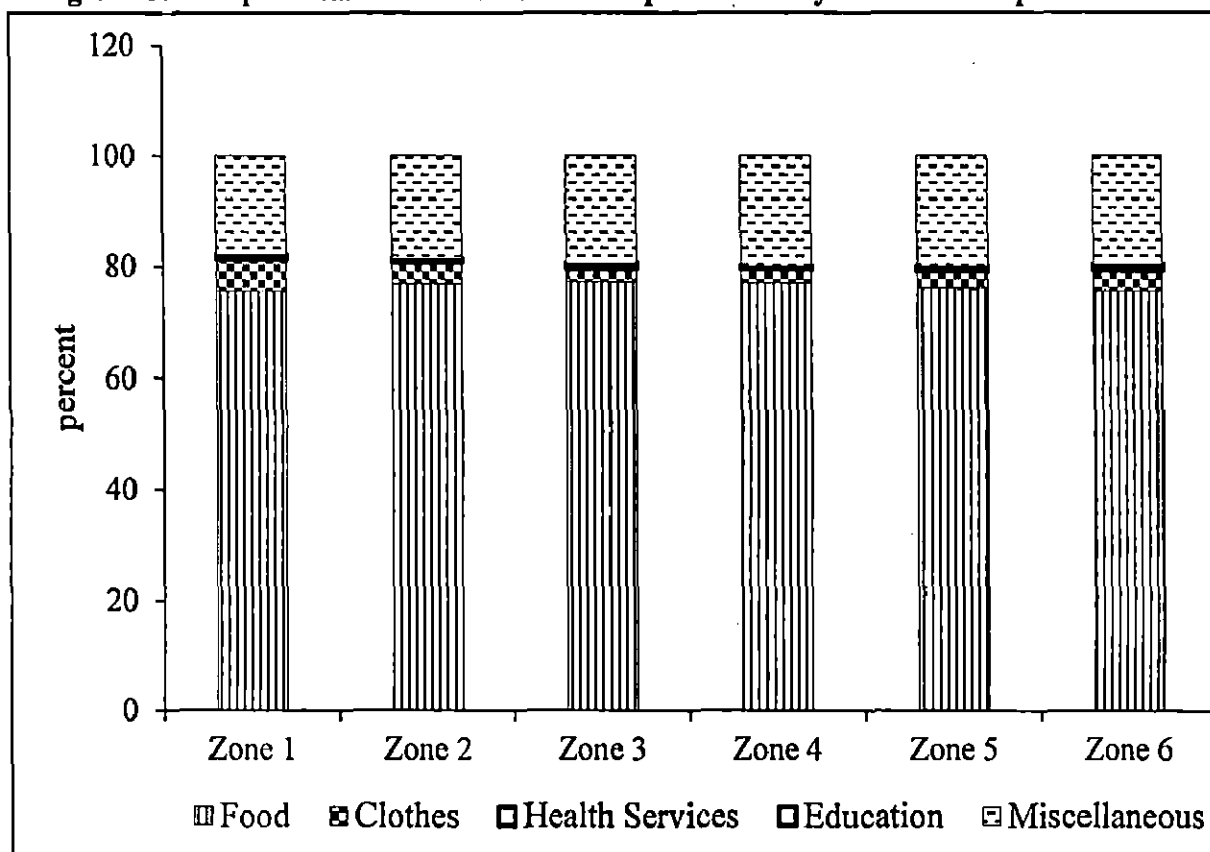
Table 5.23: Percent Distribution of Monthly Expenditure for Various Purposes by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Per month expenditure for various purposes					
		Food	Clothes	Health Services	Education	Miscellaneous	Total
Zone 1	Male	75.66	5.70	0.67	0.12	17.85	100.00
	Female	75.13	3.95	1.37	1.82	17.74	100.00
	Total	75.65	5.64	0.69	0.17	17.85	100.00
Zone 2	Male	76.84	4.24	0.40	-	18.52	100.00
	Female	74.70	2.08	0.49	0.65	22.09	100.00
	Total	76.75	4.16	0.40	0.03	18.66	100.00
Zone 3	Male	76.74	2.65	0.47	0.50	19.65	100.00
	Female	80.85	1.39	0.94	0.82	15.99	100.00
	Total	77.11	2.54	0.51	0.53	19.31	100.00
Zone 4	Male	77.10	2.73	0.37	0.11	19.68	100.00
	Female	72.14	2.89	0.62	0.60	23.75	100.00
	Total	76.92	2.74	0.38	0.13	19.83	100.00
Zone 5	Male	75.97	3.25	0.46	0.45	19.86	100.00
	Female	74.89	4.31	0.62	0.70	19.48	100.00
	Total	75.90	3.32	0.47	0.47	19.84	100.00
Zone 6	Male	76.07	3.56	0.68	0.43	19.27	100.00
	Female	72.08	4.00	0.85	1.13	21.94	100.00
	Total	75.67	3.61	0.69	0.50	19.53	100.00
Total	Male	76.14	4.28	0.57	0.24	18.78	100.00
	Female	74.89	3.38	0.91	1.10	19.72	100.00
	Total	76.07	4.24	0.58	0.28	18.83	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

It will be seen from the Table 5.23 that more than three-fourth share (76.07 percent) of the overall monthly expenditure done by houseless population is occupied by the food, followed by the expenditure on miscellaneous things (18.83 percent), clothing (4.24 percent), health services (0.58 percent) and education (0.28 percent). It means that the food and the miscellaneous things constitute almost 95% of the total expenditure of houseless population (miscellaneous items also include the various consumptive ingredients like tea, refreshment, beer, alcoholic drinks, tobacco, cigarettes, etc.). Only marginal differences have been observed between the monthly expenditure done by the houseless males and females for various purposes. Another important reference may be drawn from the data given in Table 5.23, that in each zone of the city, more than three-fourth part of expenditure of the houseless people is spent on food and, nearly one-fifth on miscellaneous puposes throughout the city, while the total expenditure incurred on clothing, health services and education does not exceed even more than seven percent in any zone of the city, their combined percent values being 6.51, 4.59, 3.58, 3.25, 4.25 and 4.80 percent respectively in Zones 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 (vide Diagram 5.4) .

Diagram 5.4: Expenditure on Various Sectors per Month by Houseless Population



Source: Based on Table 5.23.

Further examination of the Table 5.23 indicates that the houseless males experienced more expenditure on food than the females in all the zones, except in Zone 3 where females recorded greater expenditure on food per month than the males. Regarding the monthly expenditure on clothes by houseless males and females, the ratio of males sumounts the females in Zones 1, 2 and 3; whereas in Zones 4, 5, and 6, the share of females oversteps that of the males. Moreover, the proportion of houseless females exceeds that of males in terms of monthly expenditure on health services and education in the whole Kanpur city. No definite pattern could be observed between males and females in the whole study area regarding miscellaneous expenditure per month.

5.9. Sources of food for houseless population

The zone wise percent distribution of sources of food for houseless population has been given in Table 5.24. The data clearly depicts that the majority of houseless people (42.83 percent) fulfill their food requirements by purchasing the cooked food while nearly one-third part of population (32.57 percent) eat the self-cooked food in the city (see Plates 5.13 to 5.18).

Table 5.24: Zone Wise Percent Distribution of Sources of Food for Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Sources of food					
		Purchased	Self-Cooked	Foraging	Charity	Hotel (being a cook/waiter)	Total
Zone 1	Male	60.37	19.31	10.09	10.23	-	100.00
	Female	16.33	22.45	30.61	30.61	-	100.00
	Total	57.47	19.52	11.44	11.57	-	100.00
Zone 2	Male	26.32	50.38	11.28	11.28	0.75	100.00
	Female	5.88	23.53	35.29	35.29	-	100.00
	Total	24.00	47.33	14.00	14.00	0.67	100.00
Zone 3	Male	29.41	50.59	12.35	6.47	1.18	100.00
	Female	20.34	35.59	22.03	22.03	-	100.00
	Total	27.07	46.72	14.85	10.48	0.87	100.00
Zone 4	Male	46.88	20.49	15.28	14.58	2.78	100.00
	Female	25.00	16.67	29.17	29.17	-	100.00
	Total	45.19	20.19	16.35	15.71	2.56	100.00
Zone 5	Male	37.02	47.12	6.73	6.25	2.88	100.00
	Female	10.71	32.14	21.43	21.43	14.29	100.00
	Total	33.90	45.34	8.47	8.05	4.24	100.00
Zone 6	Male	33.65	53.37	5.77	5.77	1.44	100.00
	Female	6.25	56.25	18.75	18.75	-	100.00
	Total	30.00	53.75	7.50	7.50	1.25	100.00
Total	Male	46.21	32.63	10.35	9.64	1.18	100.00
	Female	15.31	32.06	25.36	25.36	1.91	100.00
	Total	42.83	32.57	11.99	11.36	1.26	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Plates: Sources of Food for Houseless Population in Kanpur City



5.13: Purchased Food, Rai Purwa



5.14: Purchased Food, Nayaganj



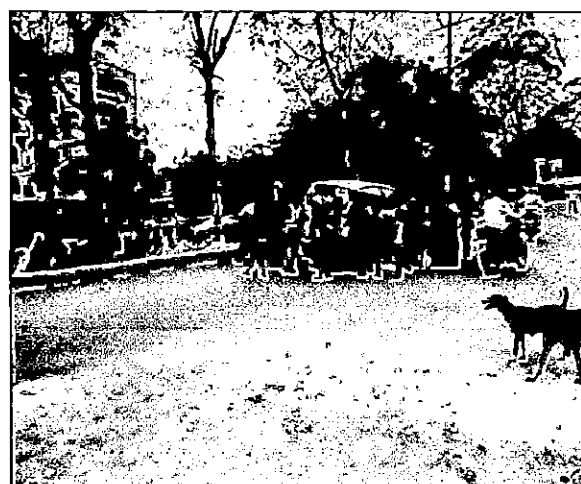
5.15: Self Cooked Food, Ratan Lal Nagar



5.16: Self Cooked Food, Juhi Kala



5.17: Foraging, Talaq Mohal

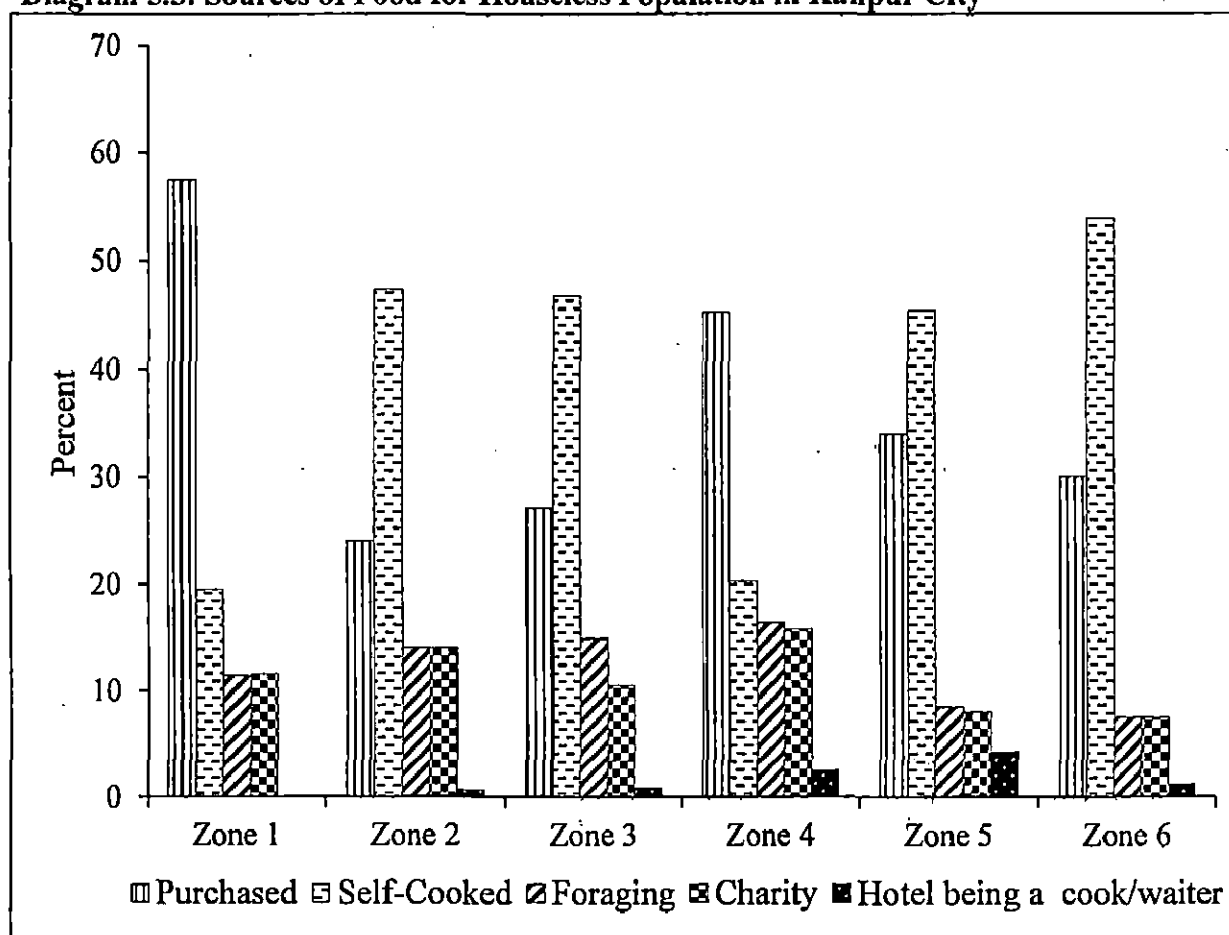


5.18: Charity, Govind Nagar Harijan Basti

More than eleven percent houseless persons depend on foraging and different charities (*Zakaat, Sadqa, Daan, Bhandara*, etc.) for their daily food requirements. A negligible ratio of houseless population eats food free of cost at the hotels where they work as a cook/waiter. Under the category of houseless people who secure their food through purchasing (cooked food), males registered a higher proportion (46.21 percent) than the females (15.31 percent). There is predominance of females in the categories of obtaining food through foraging and charities, while more or less same ratio has been registered between males and females who depend on self-cooked food.

Zone wise analysis of the data provided in Table 5.24 shows that the persons taking their food from the hotels have registered highest share of the houseless population in two zones, namely Zone 1 (57.47 percent) and Zone 4 (45.19 percent). The reason for this lies in the fact that these two (Zone 1 and 4) are the most congested zones of the Kanpur city because of which the houseless people do not found enough space for cooking their food and to keep the cooking utensils and materials safe from the thieves.

Diagram 5.5: Sources of Food for Houseless Population in Kanpur City



Source: Based on Table 5.24.

Moreover, there is found a larger number of individual houseless households in these zones (i.e. those who have their families at their native places) than the houseless family households, who being alone prefer and found it more convenient to eat at the hotels by paying money rather than cooking themselves. On the other hand, the houseless people who eat self-cooked food are found in the largest proportion in Zone 2 (47.33 percent), Zone 3 (46.72 percent), Zone 5 (45.34 percent), and Zone 6 (53.75 percent). The categories of foraging and different charities as sources of food registered more or less equal percentage of the houseless people falling under them, in all the zones of the city, except in Zone 3 wherein the largest percental difference between the foraging and charities is recorded 4.37 percent. The houseless persons who eat food free of cost at the hotels being the cook/waiter at the respective hotels are accounted the highest (4.24 percent) in Zone 5 (vide Diagram 5.5).

Among the houseless population who depends on cooked food through purchasing, the houseless males witnessed larger proportion compared to houseless females in the whole city. In Zones 2, 3, 4 and 6, the ratio of houseless males is larger than the females among the people who eat the self-cooked food, but the reverse trend has been recorded in Zones 1 and 6. Another striking fact revealed from the Table 5.24 is that there is predominance of houseless females in the categories of foraging and charities as sources of food over the houseless males in all the zones of Kanpur city.

5.10. Sources of fuels for cooking the food

The percent distribution of data about the sources of fuel used for cooking the food by the houseless population has been presented in Table 5.25. An examination of the data given in Table 5.25 exhibits that the houseless population, who eat the self-cooked food, used wood, shrubs, cow-dung, kerosene oil, coal and LPG gas as different sources of fuel for cooking, wherein the wood occupy the first place (39.68 percent), followed by shrubs (30.60 percent), cow-dung (17.11 percent), kerosene oil (6.43 percent), coal (5.14 percent) and LPG gas (1.04 percent). The zone wise analysis shows that the maximum proportion of fuel used by the houseless population is that of wood in each zone of the city except in Zone 6 where shrubs are used in largest quantity, wood being left to the second position. Further, the ratio of shrubs used as a fuel for cooking stands second after the wood in Zones 1, 2, 4 and 5, whereas in Zone 3, the use of cow-dung occupies second place pushing the use of shrubs at the third place.

As can be seen from the Table 5.25, the kerosene oil and the coal have been found to occupy the higher share among the sources of fuel in Zone 6 (8.30 percent) and Zone 3 (7.77

percent) respectively. The houseless population was found to be using traditional sources of fuel more than the modern sources, largely because the traditional sources like shrubs, cow-dung and wood are easily available and can be arranged at a very low cost or even free of cost, whereas the modern means like kerosene oil, coal and LPG are very costly as well as not easily accessible to them.

Table 5.25: Percental Distribution of Sources of Fuels Used for Cooking by the Houseless Population in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/ Female	Sources of fuels for cooking						
		Wood	Shrubs	Cow-dung	Kerosene oil	Coal	LPG	Total
Zone 1	Male	40.64	36.75	13.43	5.30	3.89	-	100.00
	Female	37.14	37.14	20.00	5.71	-	-	100.00
	Total	40.25	36.79	14.15	5.35	3.46	-	100.00
Zone 2	Male	39.39	33.33	14.55	6.06	6.67	-	100.00
	Female	37.50	25.00	-	12.50	25.00	-	100.00
	Total	39.31	32.95	13.87	6.36	7.51	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	45.45	17.48	20.28	5.59	10.49	0.70	100.00
	Female	36.00	28.00	34.00	2.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	43.01	20.21	23.83	4.66	7.77	0.52	100.00
Zone 4	Male	53.33	28.89	11.11	3.33	1.11	2.22	100.00
	Female	20.00	20.00	-	40.00	20.00	-	100.00
	Total	51.58	28.42	10.53	5.26	2.11	2.11	100.00
Zone 5	Male	44.04	27.46	16.58	7.25	4.15	0.52	100.00
	Female	40.00	20.00	20.00	15.00	5.00	-	100.00
	Total	43.66	26.76	16.90	7.98	4.23	0.47	100.00
Zone 6	Male	29.77	32.09	19.53	8.37	6.05	4.19	100.00
	Female	23.68	39.47	26.32	7.89	2.63	-	100.00
	Total	28.85	33.20	20.55	8.30	5.53	3.56	100.00
Total	Male	40.59	30.49	16.07	6.24	5.42	1.19	100.00
	Female	33.33	31.41	24.36	7.69	3.21	-	100.00
	Total	39.68	30.60	17.11	6.43	5.14	1.04	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The share of traditional fuels (wood, shrubs and cow-dung taking together) is accounted 87 percent against the share of modern fuels (kerosene oil, coal and LPG gas) i.e. 12.61 percent. The proportion of consumption of the traditional fuels is found to be 91.19, 86.10, 87.05, 90.53, 87.32 and 82.60 percent respectively in Zones 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6, in comparison to modern fuels having a respective shares of only 8.81, 13.90, 12.95, 9.47, 12.68 and 17.40 percent.

5.11. Frequency of food taken per day by houseless population

Table 5.26 presents data regarding the frequency of food taken per day by houseless population. This table reveals that nearly two-third (65.83 percent) of the total houseless

population has been recorded to have two meals per day, while 15.11 percent of the houseless people were having food only once a day. A share of 7.34 percent is registered by the people who were able to have three meals per day.

Table 5.26: Percentage of Frequency of Food Taken per Day by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Frequency of food taken per day					Total
		One time	Two times	Three times	More than three times	No food	
Zone 1	Male	12.02	76.26	1.63	0.15	9.94	100.00
	Female	25.49	49.02	1.96	-	23.53	100.00
	Total	12.97	74.34	1.66	0.14	10.90	100.00
Zone 2	Male	19.26	67.41	3.70	-	9.63	100.00
	Female	28.00	36.00	12.00	-	24.00	100.00
	Total	20.63	62.50	5.00	-	11.88	100.00
Zone 3	Male	13.29	55.06	18.35	7.59	5.70	100.00
	Female	22.95	32.79	22.95	-	21.31	100.00
	Total	15.98	48.86	19.63	5.48	10.05	100.00
Zone 4	Male	17.75	52.22	13.65	2.05	14.33	100.00
	Female	28.57	35.71	10.71	-	25.00	100.00
	Total	18.69	50.78	13.40	1.87	15.26	100.00
Zone 5	Male	13.23	74.07	5.29	-	7.41	100.00
	Female	24.32	40.54	13.51	-	21.62	100.00
	Total	15.04	68.58	6.64	-	9.73	100.00
Zone 6	Male	12.00	76.00	8.50	-	3.50	100.00
	Female	14.29	75.00	-	-	10.71	100.00
	Total	12.28	75.88	7.46	-	4.39	100.00
Total	Male	13.89	68.95	6.79	1.15	9.22	100.00
	Female	23.91	43.48	11.30	-	21.30	100.00
	Total	15.11	65.83	7.34	1.01	10.70	100.00

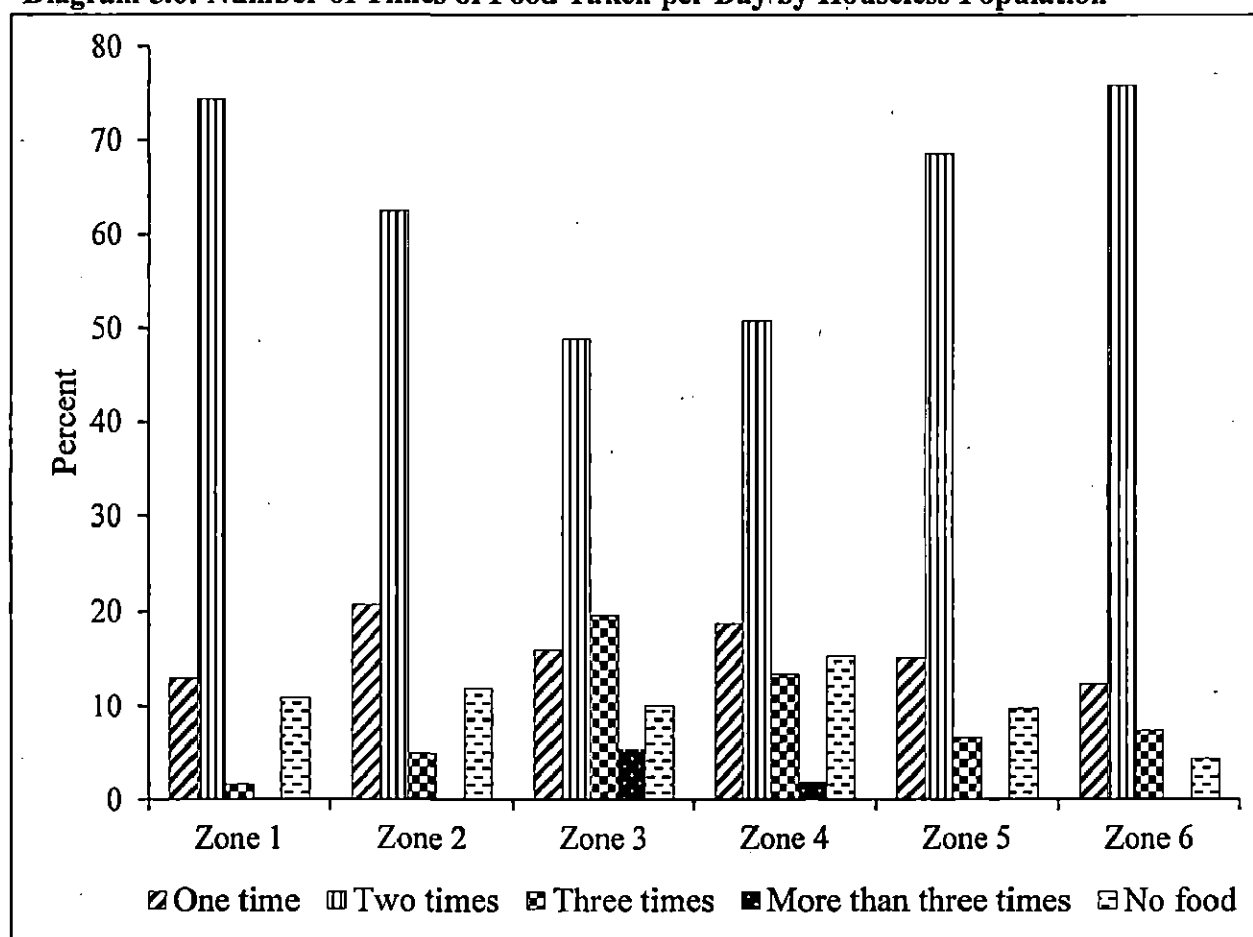
Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The most striking feature revealed in the Table 5.26 is that more than one-tenth (10.70 percent) of the houseless population was found unable to secure even a single meal per day, thus being hungry for the whole time with their empty stomachs continuously craving for the food. Such people basically include old persons, beggars, mentally and physically disabled people, new comers to the city, unemployed people, widowed, divorced/separated, etc. The houseless females are found more prone to fall under the 'one time' food per day category (23.91 percent) and under the 'no food' category (21.30 percent) than the houseless males. The proportion of houseless males (68.95 percent) is found higher than the females (43.48 percent) only in the category of two meals per day.

The zone-wise proportion of houseless people having food once in a day varies from 10 to 20 percent with the maximum and minimum percentages being recorded in Zone 2 (20.63

percent) and Zone 6 (12.28 percent) respectively. The houseless population having two meals per day is observed more than fifty percent in all the zones, except in Zone 3 where it is found to be a little bit less than fifty percent (48.86 percent). The marked range of variation is identified among the houseless population who are taking three meals per day varying from 1.66 percent in Zone 1 (the lowest) to 19.63 percent in Zone 3 (the highest). The most deprived section of the houseless population who do not have any means to fulfill their daily food requirements even once time meal in a day, and wander hungry all day long, is largely found concentrated in Zone 4 (15.26 percent) (vide Diagram 5.6).

Diagram 5.6: Number of Times of Food Taken per Day by Houseless Population



Source: Based on Table 5.26.

Barring the few exceptions, the proportion of houseless females generally exceeds the houseless males in all the groups in terms of frequency of food taken per day by the houseless population, excluding the category of two times food in a day wherein the ratio of males oversteps the females in all the zones. However, a very negligible share is recorded by the houseless people who happen to take food more than three times per day.

5.12. Payment by the houseless for living, sleeping and bathing at footpaths

Table 5.27 supplies data about the payments done by the houseless population for their living, sleeping, bathing, etc. in the Kanpur city. In early times, man was free to wander, live, sleep, eat, drink, see, talk any where on the surface of the Earth wherever he likes, and there was also a pleasant environment which was much conducive for his health. But presently, man is not allowed to live and sleep freely even in the worse defective environments on the footpaths like in the ledges of shops, streets, embankments, garbage & waste disposal sites, drainage & sewerage sites, etc. and he has to pay for using even such spaces.

Table 5.27: Percent Distribution of Payment for Living/Sleeping/Bathing by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/Female	Do you pay for living/sleeping/bathing			
		Yes	No	Security of house/shop	Total
Zone 1	Male	33.01	53.07	13.92	100.00
	Female	42.31	53.85	3.85	100.00
	Total	33.39	53.11	13.51	100.00
Zone 2	Male	19.23	79.81	0.96	100.00
	Female	40.00	60.00	-	100.00
	Total	21.05	78.07	0.88	100.00
Zone 3	Male	32.23	62.81	4.96	100.00
	Female	9.09	90.91	-	100.00
	Total	28.67	67.13	4.20	100.00
Zone 4	Male	48.50	45.92	5.58	100.00
	Female	6.25	93.75	-	100.00
	Total	45.78	49.00	5.22	100.00
Zone 5	Male	39.49	60.51	-	100.00
	Female	6.25	93.75	-	100.00
	Total	36.42	63.58	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	43.18	56.82	-	100.00
	Female	22.73	77.27	-	100.00
	Total	40.91	59.09	-	100.00
Total	Male	36.48	56.00	7.52	100.00
	Female	21.43	77.68	0.89	100.00
	Total	35.37	57.60	7.03	100.00

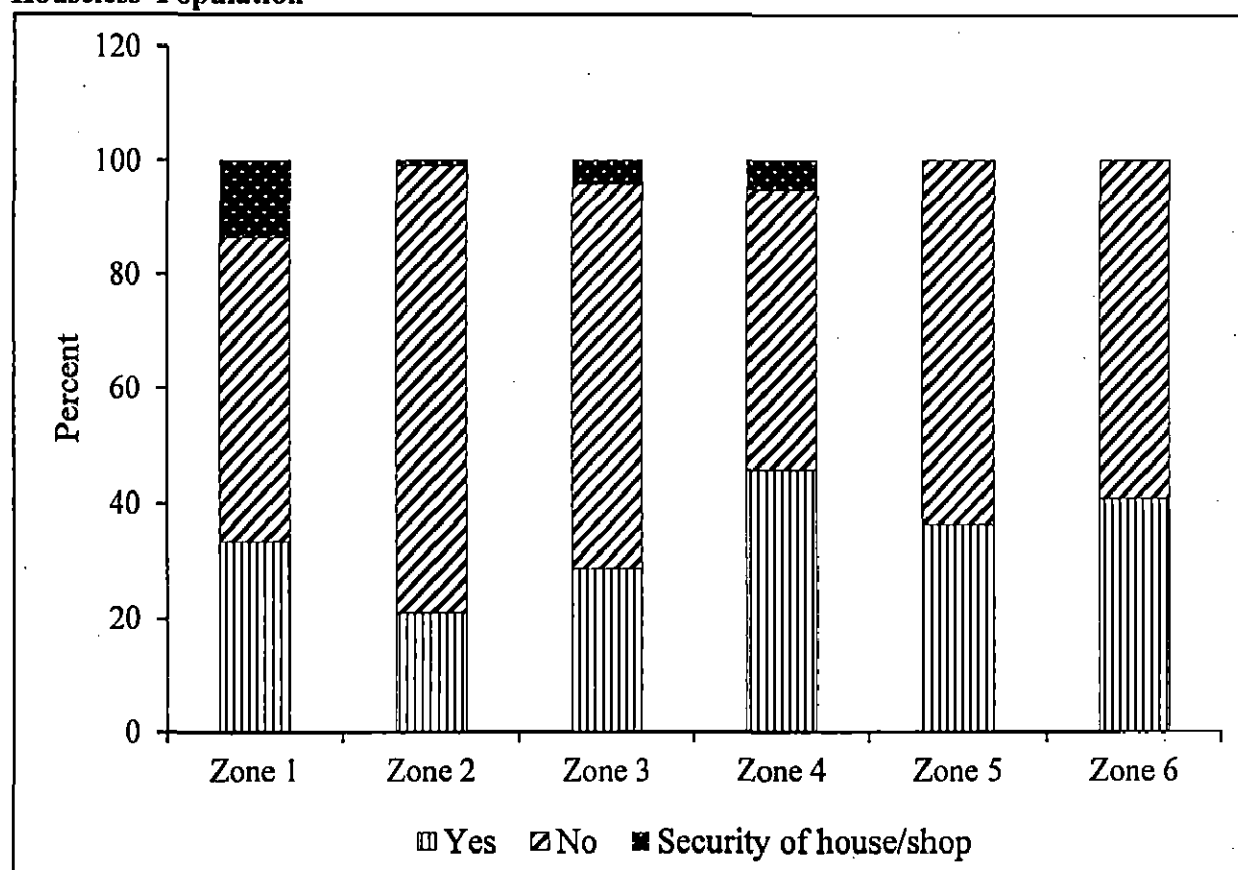
Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

It can be seen from the Table 5.27 that more than one-third of the houseless population used to pay money for living/sleeping/bathing/drinking to the space owners while the 7.03 percent houseless persons were allowed to live and sleep over there in exchange of taking the responsibility of guarding those shops and houses where they used to live and sleep, or doing some domestic chores too, etc. as a pay instead of giving money. The ratio of houseless males

exceeds the females among the houseless population who used to pay some wealth for living and sleeping whereas the reverse condition has been noticed among the houseless population who are not paying anything at all.

Further analysis of data given in Table 5.27 represents that a significant proportion (i.e. more than fifty percent) of houseless persons who do not pay anything for the purpose of living and sleeping has been found in all the zones except in Zone 4 which recorded just a little less than fifty percent i.e. 49.00 percent (vide Diagram 5.7).

Diagram 5.7: Status of Payment for Living, Sleeping and Bathing on Footpaths by the Houseless Population



Source: Based on Table 5.27.

The percental range of variation of houseless population who are paying money for the living and sleeping purposes lies between 45.78 in Zone 4 (the highest) and 21.05 in Zone 2 (the lowest). The largest share of houseless persons who offered their services to owners instead of money for using their space to live and sleep is witnessed in Zone 1. The ratio of houseless males surmounts the females in all the zones among the houseless population who paid money for living and sleeping, except in Zones 1 and 2. On the other hand, the share of houseless females oversteps the males among the houseless persons who did not pay anything for living and sleeping in each zone of the city, excluding Zone 2.

5.13. Other supportive services for houseless population

Table 5.28 provides information about the percentage distribution of other supportive services availed by houseless population in Kanpur city. It is evident from this table that nearly twenty percent houseless persons are found to be supported each in the category of charities and foraging, followed by clothing (16.49 percent), food stamps (16.49 percent), asking for money (10.37 percent), friends' help (8.35 percent), advice (3.20 percent), families' help (2.23 percent), medicare (2.09 percent) employers' aid (1.95 percent) and pensions (0.21 percent).

Table 5.28: Percent Distribution of Other Supportive Services for Houseless Population

Zones	M/ F/ T	Other supportive services for houseless population											
		Charities	Foraging	Clothing	Food stamps	Asking for money	Friends' help	Advice	Families' help	Medicare	Employers' aids	Pensions	Total
Zone 1	M	23.02	26.86	18.47	23.02	5.28	0.48	-	-	2.88	-	-	100.00
	F	22.54	26.76	19.72	16.90	8.45	-	-	-	5.63	-	-	100.00
	T	22.95	26.84	18.65	22.13	5.74	0.41	-	-	3.28	-	-	100.00
Zone 2	M	15.60	16.51	16.51	15.60	12.84	7.34	6.42	4.59	2.75	1.83	-	100.00
	F	19.05	19.05	19.05	14.29	7.14	4.76	9.52	-	7.14	-	-	100.00
	T	16.56	17.22	17.22	15.23	11.26	6.62	7.28	3.31	3.97	1.32	-	100.00
Zone 3	M	10.84	13.25	15.66	10.84	14.46	16.87	10.84	3.61	2.41	1.20	-	100.00
	F	14.00	17.00	19.00	14.00	16.00	15.00	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	-	100.00
	T	12.57	15.30	17.49	12.57	15.30	15.85	6.01	2.19	1.64	1.09	-	100.00
Zone 4	M	16.88	15.15	16.02	13.85	11.26	11.69	5.63	3.03	0.87	5.19	0.43	100.00
	F	17.07	17.07	14.63	9.76	7.32	14.63	14.63	2.44	2.44	-	-	100.00
	T	16.91	15.44	15.81	13.24	10.66	12.13	6.99	2.94	1.10	4.41	0.37	100.00
Zone 5	M	21.05	18.42	17.11	11.84	11.84	3.95	2.63	3.95	2.63	3.95	2.63	100.00
	F	22.73	18.18	18.18	15.91	13.64	4.55	-	-	-	6.82	-	100.00
	T	21.67	18.33	17.50	13.33	12.50	4.17	1.67	2.50	1.67	5.00	1.67	100.00
Zone 6	M	21.84	11.49	9.77	12.64	14.37	18.39	1.72	6.32	-	3.45	-	100.00
	F	20.41	12.24	14.29	18.37	14.29	18.37	-	2.04	-	-	-	100.00
	T	21.52	11.66	10.76	13.90	14.35	18.39	1.35	5.38	-	2.69	-	100.00
Total	M	19.72	19.27	16.06	16.97	9.91	7.89	3.12	2.66	1.93	2.20	0.28	100.00
	F	18.73	18.73	17.87	14.99	11.82	9.80	3.46	0.86	2.59	1.15	-	100.00
	T	19.49	19.14	16.49	16.49	10.37	8.35	3.20	2.23	2.09	1.95	0.21	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Note: T- Total; M- Male; F- Female

Data in the Table 5.28 reveal that more than one-fourth houseless people in Zone 1 are assisted by the foraging, with other significant services in the zone being the charities (22.95 percent), food stamps (22.13 percent) and clothing (18.65 percent). In Zone 2, the very marginal percental differences have been observed among the charities, foraging, clothing and

food stamps as supportive services availed by the houseless population accounting to 16.56, 17.22, 17.22 and 15.23 percent respectively. The respective figures for the Zone 4 are 16.91, 15.44, 15.81 and 13.24 percent. More than one-fifth proportion is constituted by the charities as a supportive service in both Zones 5 and 6.

Out of eleven supportive services listed in Table 5.28, only five, namely charities, foraging, clothing, food stamps and asking for money, are found to be most significant in helping the houseless population, their combined share together constituting 96.31, 77.49, 73.23, 72.06, 83.33 and 72.19 percent of all the supportive services in Zones 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 respectively. On the other hand, the aggregate proportion of the remaining six supportive services i.e. friends' help, advice, families' help, medicare, employers' help and pensions have not been registered more than thirty percent in any of the zones in the whole Kanpur city.

References:

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----- 2011. *Primary census abstract for total population and houseless population.*

Office of the Registrar General & Census Commissioner, Govt. of India, New Delhi.

Chapter 6

Causes of Houselessness

People who keep moving always have a reason and houseless movers are no exception. One respondent who was native of Lucknow city, when asked why he had traveled to Kanpur city, replied that it felt shameful to work as a casual worker in his own place, so he used to come to Kanpur for work and returned to Lucknow after earning some money to support his family. This incident may coincide with the experience of some other houseless individuals as well. Therefore, every phenomenon of geography is studied under the questions like what, where, why, who and how. The second and third questions of why and where does any phenomenon occur is of basic importance in the population geography because of their spatial and diagnostic nature respectively. The thorough knowledge of the causes of houselessness in the present chapter is essential for framing rational policies to eradicate the problem of houselessness either from any region of the country or any section of the society.

The most common reasons for mobility claimed by most of the respondents surveyed include non-availability of jobs and services, eviction from housing, no house & space, extreme poverty, no good services and programmes, mental & physical disabilities, etc. These factors are the ones that set up the patterns of migration typically seen in the houseless population. Patterns of movements are predominantly between regions rather than between community types. Houseless movers generally move from smaller cities to larger ones. This would correlate with the expressed motivations of seeking more services and a wider employment market. Unsuccessful asylum seekers and other undocumented migrants also appear at increasing rates among roofless people and in low-threshold housing services.

The houselessness is caused by the combined effects of personal causes such as drug and alcohol addiction, lack of skills, lack of social support, debts, mortgage, high rent, poor physical and mental health, relationship breakdown, and getting involved in crime, family breakdown & disputes, sexual & physical abuse, having parents with drug or alcohol problems, parents, friends or relatives unwilling or unable to continue to accommodate them, and previous experience of family houselessness, etc., and of structural causes which are social and economic in nature, and are often beyond the control of the individual or family concerned, like unemployment, extreme poverty, lack of affordable housing, the changing demographics of the family, divorce & domestic violence, and fractured social-supports,

housing policies, the structure and administration of housing benefits, wider policy developments, the loss of loved ones, job loss, social disaffiliation, etc. As the gap between housing costs and income continues to widen, more and more people are at the risk of going houseless due to ever increasing price level. For individuals and families with vulnerabilities or little safety net, even a seemingly minor event can trigger a catastrophic outcome and catapult a family onto the footpaths. Natural disasters often cause current housing situations to become untenable and costly repairs are often simply not possible. The results of cloud burst in Uttarakhand stand in bleak testimony to the power of nature to displace people.

The present chapter deals with movements of houseless population, determinants of migration, the causes of houselessness and their housing situations. The migrants' places of origin from where they have flown like wards of Kanpur city, blocks of Kanpur Nagar, tahsils of Kanpur Nagar, districts of Uttar Pradesh, states of India and some countries of the world have been considered. The determinants of migration have been grouped into push and pull factors and then analysed in detail in terms of socio-economic and biological categories. The causes of houselessness are also examined in respect of social, economic, biological and infrastructural factors combinedly as well as separately. The causes of migration and of houselessness have been examined and analysed in detail because these are the intimate detestable forces bringing the remarkable socio-economic changes in the scenario of city life. Moreover, the chapter also throws light on the places of living and sleeping available for the houseless people, frequency of shifting their living places, status of houseless people in terms of ever/never been able to live in a house, frequency of getting chances to live in shelter after months & years and the duration of houselessness.

6.1. Migration

Migration refers to the change of residence of an individual from one area to another (Hagerstrand, 1957: 28) which implies spatial mobility of population including all sorts of territorial movements (Trewartha, 1969: 137). But According to Gosal (1961, pp.106-121), migration is not only the shift of people from one place to another, but also it is one of the most fundamental factor helping to understand the ever-changing 'space-content' and 'space-relations' of a region. In fact, migration has been a universal characteristic of people since the human history (Singh, 2005: 179) for a variety of reasons, sometimes in search of food, at other times to escape from natural calamities, threats, enemies or to seek adventure, but at present time, migration has greatly occurred owing to the socio-economic opportunities.

6.1.1. Migratory status of houseless population

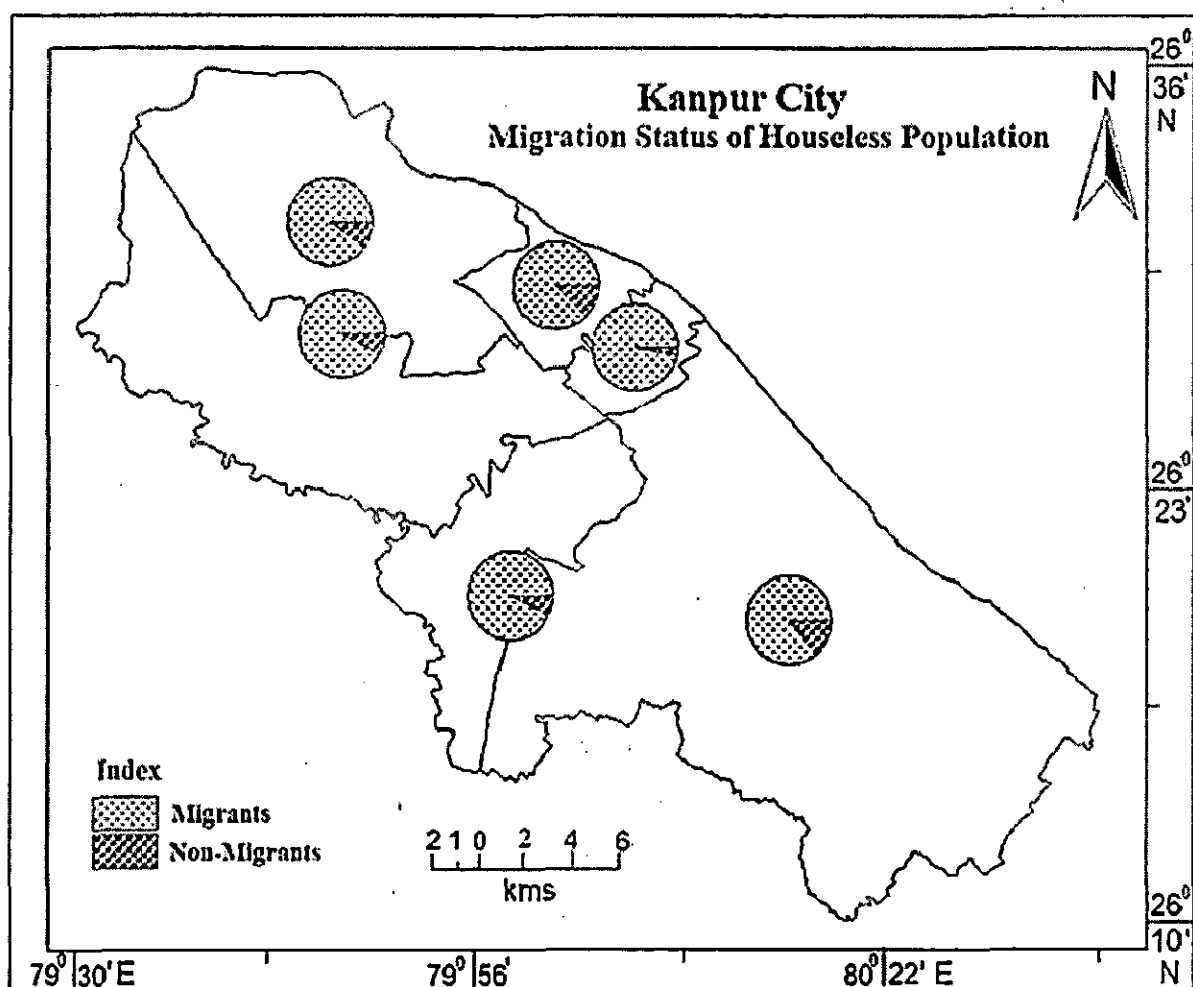
The zone wise distribution of migrants and non-migrants has been given in Table 6.1. An analysis of this table shows that the number of migrants is greater than non-migrants in all the zones of Kanpur city. Out of the total houseless households surveyed (1384), 1282 houseless households have been found migrants which is more than 90% of the total houseless households recorded in the Kanpur city. Out of the total migrant houseless households, males and females account 1184 and 98 respectively. The total number of non-migrants houseless households in the city is 102, in which 93 are males and 9 females.

Table 6.1: Distribution of Migratory Status of Houseless Households

Zones	Male/Female	Migratory-status of houseless households		
		Migrants	Non-migrants	Total
Zone 1	Male	517	15	532
	Female	22	3	25
	Total	539	18	557
Zone 2	Male	88	15	103
	Female	9	1	10
	Total	97	16	113
Zone 3	Male	116	10	126
	Female	22	-	22
	Total	138	10	148
Zone 4	Male	160	23	183
	Female	10	2	12
	Total	170	25	195
Zone 5	Male	145	12	157
	Female	14	2	16
	Total	159	14	173
Zone 6	Male	158	18	176
	Female	21	1	22
	Total	179	19	198
Total	Male	1184	93	1277
	Female	98	9	107
	Total	1282	102	1384

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The zone wise study reveals that the maximum number of houseless migrants has been registered in Zone 1 i.e. 539, followed by Zone 6 (179), Zone 4 (170), Zone 5 (159), Zone 3 (138), and Zone 2 (97). In Zones 1, 3, 5 and 6, more than 90 percent houseless households have been observed as migrants while more than four-fifth proportion of the households is recorded as migrants in the remaining Zones i.e. Zones 2 and 4 (see Figure 6.1).



Source: Based on table 6.1.

Fig. 6.1

An examination of the data given in Table 6.1 depicts that the number of houseless migrants exceeds the number of female migrants in all the zones. The maximum and minimum houseless male migrants have been witnessed in Zones 1 and 2 respectively viz., 517 and 88. The respective figures for houseless female migrants are 22 and 9 in Zones 1 and 2 (Zone 3 also recorded 22 houseless female migrants in the city). Among non-migrant houseless households too, the share of males surmounts the females in the whole city.

6.2. Spatial flows of migrants

Migration that is movement of population, within the bounds of a nation, across the boundary of an administrative unit or specific geographic region adopted for defining migration and for the duration specified as migration defining period (Khan, 2010: 25). The existence of regional imbalances in the degree of development across the country is a primary motive for migration to better developed regions. The trends in migration have been considered as a sensitive index of changing pattern of economic opportunities in an area (Chandna, 2005: 240

and Lipton, 1980: 1-24). According to Clarke (1981, pp. 131-135) commercialisation of agriculture and traditional systems of land tenure also push the poor and small farmers to migrate. Barring few exceptions, the volume of rural to urban migration has increased with the passage of time in the developing countries of the world due to increasing gap in the levels of development between rural and urban areas.

The main causes of heavy influx of rural migrants in urban areas are the repulsive forces operating in the rural areas in the form of high rate of unemployment, low wages, small size of land-holdings, lack of modern infrastructural facilities, inadequate educational and health facilities, absolute poverty, while, the availability of jobs, high wages, decent nature of work, expanding infrastructural facilities, civic amenities and facilities act as attractive forces in the urban areas (Davis and Golden, 1954: 1-26; Caldwell, 1968: 334-377; Chapman, 1975: 129-148; Connell et. al., 1976; Greenwood, 1969a: 283-290, 1969b: 189-194 and 1971: 253-262; Hannan, 1969: 195-219; Hugo, 1979: 192-203; Jackson, 1969: 304; Long, 1973: 243-258; Peason, 1963: 321-339; Premi, 1980: 714-720; Price and Sikes, 1975: 565; Pryor, 1975: 32; Sovani, 1966: 160; Todaro, 1976: 106 and Zachariah, 1968:10-16). The heavy influx of migrants in cities of developing countries of the world creates problems of accommodation, slums, squatter settlements and houselessness, water and electricity supply, sanitation, traffic congestion, environmental pollution and overall decline in the quality and standard of urban life (Khan, 2010: 133).

6.2.1. Wards of Kanpur city as places of origin

Zone wise percent distribution of houseless persons in terms of having originated in the same ward or in other wards of Kanpur city is placed in Table 6.2. From this table, it would be seen that most of the houseless people in the city belong to other wards of Kanpur city (as migrants) than the wards where they have enumerated themselves in the survey as houseless persons. Females have reported to have belonged to other wards in larger proportion than the males. The percent values for the females and males belonging to other wards are 75.00 and 60.54 percent against 25.00 and 39.46 percent respectively. Persons who became houseless owing to some socio-economic conditions do not prefer to live in the informal places¹ in front of the eyes of their neighbours and relatives, and hence in order to avoid shyness & embarrassment, social exclusion & disaffiliation, they opt to live in other areas (wards) of the city instead of living at their places of origin.

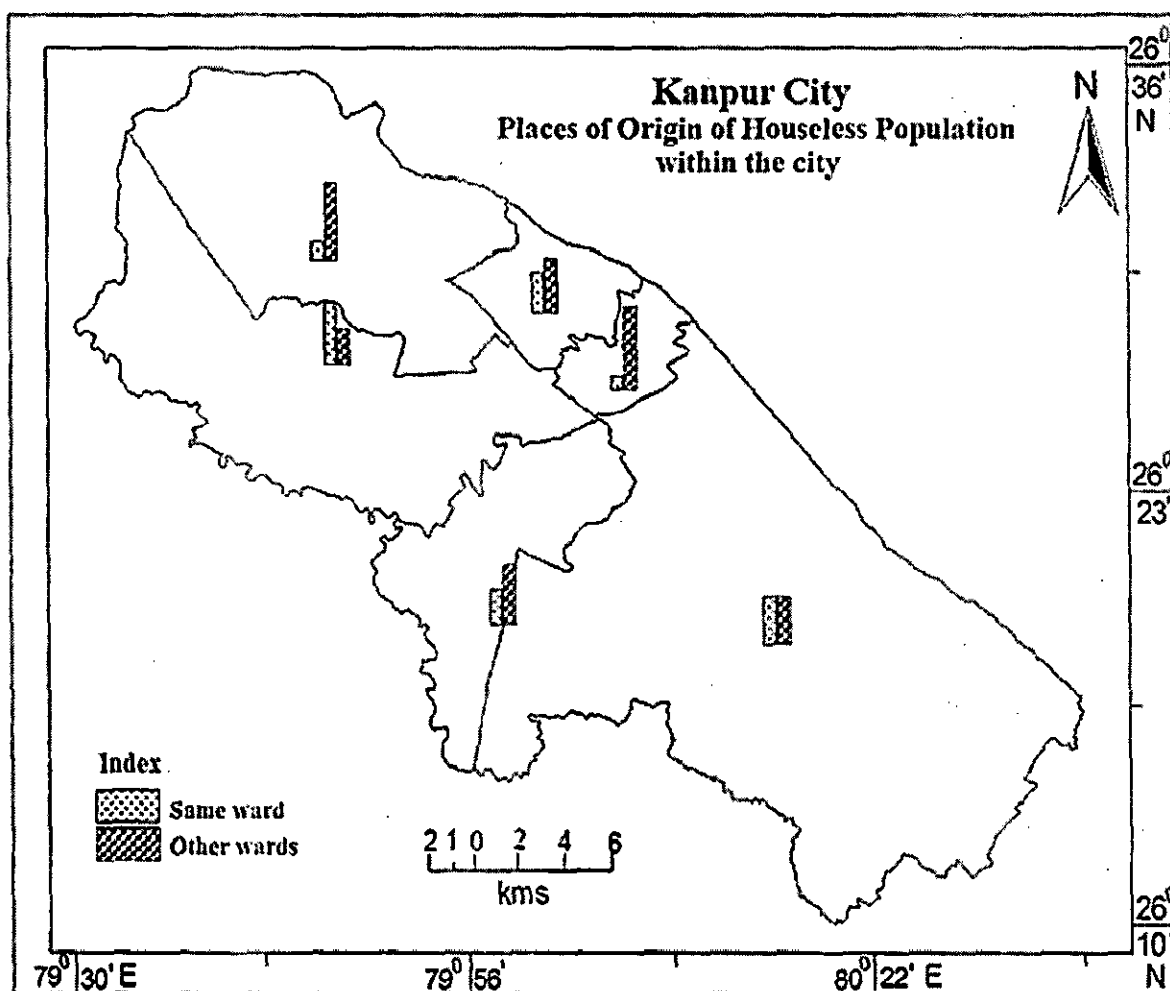
¹. Informal places which are not meant for human habitation.

Table 6.2: Percentage of Houseless Population Originated in the Wards of Kanpur City

Zones	Male/Female	Origin of houselessness		
		Same ward	Other wards	Number
Zone 1	Male	25.81	74.19	62
	Female	28.57	71.43	7
	Total	26.09	73.91	69
Zone 2	Male	55.56	44.44	27
	Female	-	100.00	3
	Total	50.00	50.00	30
Zone 3	Male	47.83	52.17	23
	Female	-	100.00	3
	Total	42.31	57.69	26
Zone 4	Male	44.19	55.81	43
	Female	50.00	50.00	4
	Total	44.68	55.32	47
Zone 5	Male	64.71	35.29	17
	Female	40.00	60.00	5
	Total	59.09	40.91	22
Zone 6	Male	31.37	68.63	51
	Female	16.67	83.33	6
	Total	29.82	70.18	57
Total	Male	39.46	60.54	223
	Female	25.00	75.00	28
	Total	37.85	62.15	251

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

It will be seen from the Table 6.2 that in all the zones of the city, the houseless population belonging to other wards is greater than that belonging to the same ward in terms of origin, except in Zone 5 wherein reversed situation is prevailed (see Figure 6.2). A close analysis of the data enumerated in this table reveals the fact that houseless males who originated within the same ward where they were enumerated in the survey surmount the houseless females in the same category excluding Zone 1 and Zone 4 wherein houseless females accounted 28.57 percent and 50.00 percent respectively against 25.81 percent and 44.19 percent houseless males. Although Zone 2 and Zone 3 do not record any houseless females having originated in the same ward of enumeration, but each recorded 100.00 percent share of houseless females who have originated in other wards of city. A comparative analysis of the data in Table 6.2 discloses that the proportion of houseless males who have originated in other wards of the city is lower than the houseless females in the same category, excluding Zone 1 and Zone 4 wherein they registered 74.19 and 55.81 percent respectively against 71.43 and 50.00 percent.



Source: Based on table 6.2.

Fig. 6.2.

6.2.2. Blocks of Kanpur Nagar district as places of origin

The zone wise percentage distribution of data of houseless population who have migrated from the blocks of the Kanpur Nagar district to the Kanpur city has been listed in the Table 6.3. This table depicts that nearly one-third proportion (62.37 percent) of houseless population has been migrated from the Kalyanpur block (Kanpur city itself is part of this block) out of the total migrants who originated in the blocks of Kanpur Nagar district. Other blocks from where migrants have come are Ghatampur 3.54 percent, Chaubepur 2.78 percent, Bilhaur 2.27 percent, Vidhunu 2.02 percent, Patara 1.77 percent, Kakwan 1.52 percent, Shivrampur 1.52 percent, Bhitargaon 1.26 percent and Sarsal 0.76 percent. The place of origin of more than twenty percent houseless migrants as to where they have migrated from could not be known due to mental illness, forgetting the name of blocks, reluctance, etc. The houseless migrants from only one block i.e. Kalyanpur also have been male and female dominated with 64.04 and 51.85 percent in terms of total migrants from the blocks of Kanpur Nagar district respectively.

Table 6.3: Percentage Distribution of Houseless Population Migrated from Blocks of Kanpur Nagar District

Blocks of Kanpur Nagar District													
Zones	Male/Female	Kalyanpur	Ghatampur	Chaubepur	Bilhaur	Vidhunu	Patara	Kakwan	Shivrajpur	Bhitargaon	Sarsal	Not Known	Total
Zone 1	Male	52.10	2.52	2.52	1.68	1.68	2.52	-	2.52	1.68	1.68	31.09	100.00
	Female	46.67	-	-	-	-	6.67	-	-	-	-	46.67	100.00
	Total	51.49	2.24	2.24	1.49	1.49	2.99	-	2.24	1.49	1.49	32.84	100.00
Zone 2	Male	64.29	4.76	7.14	-	2.38	2.38	-	-	-	-	19.05	100.00
	Female	42.86	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	57.14	100.00
	Total	61.22	4.08	4.12	-	2.04	2.04	-	-	-	-	26.49	100.00
Zone 3	Male	69.70	9.09	-	3.03	6.06	6.06	-	-	-	-	6.06	100.00
	Female	60.00	20.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	20.00	100.00
	Total	68.42	10.53	-	2.63	5.26	5.26	-	-	-	-	7.89	100.00
Zone 4	Male	80.00	2.00	2.00	6.00	-	-	6.00	-	-	-	4.00	100.00
	Female	80.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	20.00	100.00
	Total	80.00	1.82	1.82	5.45	-	-	5.45	-	-	-	5.45	100.00
Zone 5	Male	56.25	3.13	3.13	3.13	3.13	-	-	3.13	-	-	28.13	100.00
	Female	50.00	-	-	10.00	-	-	10.00	-	-	10.00	20.00	100.00
	Total	54.76	2.38	2.38	4.76	2.38	-	2.38	2.38	-	2.38	26.19	100.00
Zone 6	Male	74.24	4.55	3.03	1.52	1.52	-	1.52	3.03	3.03	-	7.58	100.00
	Female	50.00	-	8.33	-	8.33	-	8.33	-	8.33	-	16.67	100.00
	Total	70.51	3.85	3.85	1.28	2.56	-	2.56	2.56	3.85	-	8.97	100.00
Total	Male	64.04	3.80	2.92	2.34	2.05	1.75	1.17	1.75	1.17	0.58	18.42	100.00
	Female	51.85	1.85	1.85	1.85	1.85	1.85	3.70	-	1.85	1.85	31.48	100.00
	Total	62.37	3.54	2.78	2.27	2.02	1.77	1.52	1.52	1.26	0.76	20.20	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Above fifty percent houseless migrants found in each zone have migrated from the Kalyanpur block, wherein the maximum and minimum proportion has been registered in Zone 4 (80.00 percent) and Zone 1 (51.49 percent) respectively. No other block of Kanpur Nagar district has contributed more than 5% houseless migrants in Kanpur city, barring the Ghatampur in Zone 3 (10.53 percent), and Bilhaur and Kakwan (5.45 percent each) in Zone 4.

As can be seen from the Table 6.3, the houseless migrants whose places of origin are not known are observed more than one-fourth in proportion in Zones 1, 2 and 5 while in the remaining zones (i.e. Zones 3, 4 and 6), their share is limited within 10 percent. Among the houseless migrants who migrated from the Kalyanpur block, the ratio of male migrants exceeds that of female migrants in all the zones of city, but the reverse trend has been registered among the houseless migrants whose places of origin are not known excluding the Zone 5 in which the share of male migrants is greater than that of female migrants.

6.2.3. Tahsils of Kanpur Nagar district as places of origin

The percent distribution of data of houseless population migrated from tahsils of Kanpur Nagar district is given in the Table 6.4. It can be seen clearly from this table that Kanpur tahsil (Kanpur city itself is part of this tahsil) is, by far, the greatest contributor of houseless migrants. Houseless migrants from this tahsil constitute no less than 67.41 percent of the total migrants from the tahsils of Kanpur Nagar district. The tahsils of Bilhaur and Ghatampur each accounted 6.47 percent houseless migrants whereas 19.65 percent houseless migrants do not know their place of origin. Among the migrants from Kanpur, Bilhaur and Ghatampur, the ratio of male migrants dominated the female migrants. But the share of females is larger than the males among the houseless migrants in the city whose places of origin are not known. Nonetheless, more than fifty percent (58.49 percent) houseless female migrants have migrated from the Kanpur tahsil, whereas the tahsils of Bilhaur and Ghatampur each supplied 5.66 percent houseless female migrants to the Kanpur city.

Further analysis of the data presented in Table 6.4 exhibits that each zone of the city has accounted more than fifty percent houseless migrants who have mainly come from the Kanpur tahsil, the range of maximum and minimum varies from 85.71 percent in Zone 4 to 54.48 percent in Zone 1 respectively. Male migrants from Kanpur tahsil to the city also experienced more than one-half in proportion in all the zones but in comparison to female migrants, they are recorded less in proportion only in two zones namely, Zone 4 and Zone 5. The houseless

migrants whose places of origin are not known are registered more than one-fourth in Zones 1, 2 and 5 but less than 10 percent in the remaining zones i.e. Zones 3, 4 and 6.

Table 6.4: Percentage Distribution of Houseless Population Migrated from Tahsils of Kanpur Nagar District

Zones	Male/ Female	Tahsils of Kanpur Nagar District				
		Kanpur	Bilhaur	Ghatampur	Not known	Total
Zone 1	Male	55.46	6.72	6.72	31.09	100.00
	Female	46.67	-	6.67	46.67	100.00
	Total	54.48	5.97	6.72	32.84	100.00
Zone 2	Male	73.81	-	7.14	19.05	100.00
	Female	42.86	-	-	57.14	100.00
	Total	69.39	-	4.12	26.49	100.00
Zone 3	Male	76.47	2.94	14.71	5.88	100.00
	Female	60.00	-	20.00	20.00	100.00
	Total	74.36	2.56	15.38	7.69	100.00
Zone 4	Male	84.62	9.62	1.92	3.85	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	85.71	8.93	1.79	3.57	100.00
Zone 5	Male	59.38	9.38	3.13	28.13	100.00
	Female	60.00	20.00	-	20.00	100.00
	Total	59.52	11.90	2.38	26.19	100.00
Zone 6	Male	77.14	8.57	7.14	7.14	100.00
	Female	66.67	8.33	8.33	16.67	100.00
	Total	75.61	8.54	7.32	8.54	100.00
Total	Male	68.77	6.59	6.59	18.05	100.00
	Female	58.49	5.66	5.66	30.19	100.00
	Total	67.41	6.47	6.47	19.65	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

As far as the gender wise distribution of houseless migrants (whose places of origin are not known) is concerned, the ratio of females is greater than the males in four zones viz. Zones 1, 2, 3 and 6, while in Zone 5 male migrants exceed the females whereas Zone 4 does not record any female migrant. The tahsils of Bilhaur and Ghatampur witnessed the highest percentages of houseless migrants in Zone 5 (11.90 percent) and Zone 3 (15.38 percent) respectively.

6.2.4. Districts of India as places of origin

The percent distribution of data of houseless population migrated from different districts of Uttar Pradesh as well as from the districts of other states of India has been presented in the Table 6.5.

Percentage Distribution of Houseless Population Migrated from Different Districts of Uttar Pradesh and

Districts	Zone 1			Zone 2			Zone 3			Zone 4	
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
	15.44	32.00	16.19	33.01	33.33	33.04	27.12	18.18	25.71	28.74	14.29
	13.37	12.00	13.31	7.77	11.11	8.04	9.32	4.55	8.57	14.37	14.29
	3.20	-	3.06	17.48	-	16.07	17.80	54.55	23.57	4.02	14.29
	1.69	-	1.62	2.91	-	2.68	6.78	-	5.71	2.87	14.29
	6.59	4.00	6.47	2.91	-	2.68	1.69	-	1.43	0.57	14.29
	2.45	-	2.34	0.97	-	0.89	0.85	-	0.71	8.05	14.29
	0.56	4.00	0.72	5.83	-	5.36	4.24	-	3.57	2.30	14.29
	4.14	-	3.96	0.97	-	0.89	0.85	-	0.71	3.45	14.29
	4.14	4.00	4.14	-	-	-	1.69	-	1.43	2.30	14.29
	2.82	-	2.70	1.94	-	1.79	1.69	-	1.43	0.57	14.29
	3.58	4.00	3.60	1.94	-	1.79	2.54	-	2.14	1.72	14.29
	1.88	-	1.80	0.97	-	0.89	-	4.55	0.71	5.75	14.29
	-	-	-	1.94	-	1.79	5.08	4.55	5.00	1.15	14.29
	2.45	-	2.34	0.97	-	0.89	0.85	-	0.71	0.57	14.29
	1.69	-	1.62	1.94	-	1.79	-	-	-	2.87	14.29
	1.51	-	1.44	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.30	14.29
	0.56	-	0.54	0.97	-	0.89	2.54	-	2.14	1.15	14.29
	1.32	-	1.26	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.30	14.29
	2.26	4.00	2.34	0.97	-	0.89	-	-	-	1.15	14.29
	0.56	4.00	0.72	0.97	-	0.89	5.08	-	4.29	-	14.29
	2.07	-	1.98	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14.29
	0.94	-	0.90	-	-	-	0.85	-	0.71	2.87	14.29
of UP	11.68	4.00	11.33	4.85	11.11	5.36	6.78	-	5.71	8.05	14.29
of States	8.10	-	7.73	2.91	11.11	3.57	2.54	9.09	3.57	1.72	14.29
	6.97	28.00	7.91	7.77	33.33	9.82	1.69	4.55	2.14	1.15	14.29
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Districts	Zone 5			Zone 6			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Kanpur-Nagar	14.84	50.00	18.13	36.93	45.45	37.88	22.75	35.24	23.72
Unnao	5.81	12.50	6.43	1.14	18.18	3.03	10.02	10.48	10.06
Fatehpur	6.45	-	5.85	2.84	-	2.53	6.21	12.38	6.68
Kanpur Dehat	11.61	6.25	11.11	5.68	4.55	5.56	4.22	1.90	4.04
Sitapur	0.65	-	0.58	4.55	-	4.04	3.98	0.95	3.74
Hardoi	3.87	-	3.51	7.95	-	7.07	3.90	-	3.60
Hamirpur	11.61	6.25	11.11	2.84	-	2.53	3.26	1.90	3.16
Sultanpur	3.23	-	2.92	1.14	-	1.01	2.94	0.95	2.79
Rae Bareli	2.58	-	2.34	2.27	-	2.02	2.86	1.90	2.79
Bahraich	0.65	-	0.58	7.39	-	6.57	2.70	-	2.50
Allahabad	3.23	-	2.92	-	-	-	2.55	0.95	2.42
Gonda	1.94	-	1.75	0.57	-	0.51	1.99	0.95	1.91
Banda	7.10	-	6.43	1.14	-	1.01	1.83	0.95	1.76
Basti	0.65	-	0.58	1.14	4.55	1.52	1.51	0.95	1.47
Lucknow	1.29	6.25	1.75	-	-	-	1.43	0.95	1.40
Gorakhpur	1.94	-	1.75	2.27	-	2.02	1.51	-	1.40
Azamgarh	2.58	-	2.34	2.84	-	2.53	1.43	-	1.32
Faizabad	3.23	-	2.92	0.57	-	0.51	1.35	-	1.25
Kheri	0.65	-	0.58	-	-	-	1.27	0.95	1.25
Jaunpur	1.94	-	1.75	1.70	-	1.52	1.27	0.95	1.25
Balrampur	1.29	-	1.17	1.14	4.55	1.52	1.19	0.95	1.17
Kannauj	1.29	-	1.17	-	9.09	1.01	1.03	1.90	1.10
Other Districts of UP	4.52	-	4.09	11.93	4.55	11.11	9.31	4.76	8.96
District of Other States	1.29	6.25	1.75	1.14	-	1.01	4.46	4.76	4.48
Not Known	5.81	12.50	6.43	2.84	9.09	3.54	5.01	15.24	5.80
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

This table shows that more than one-fifth of the houseless people have originated within the Kanpur Nagar district (Kanpur city itself is part of this district), wherein the share of female houseless migrants predominate over the male migrants because the distance is inversely related with volume of migration in general and for female migration in particular. The three districts namely Kanpur Nagar, Unnao and Fatehpur accounted for more than forty percent of the total houseless migrants migrated from different districts of Uttar Pradesh and from districts of other states.

Other districts from where houseless migrants have come in notable numbers (i.e. more than 1.00%) are Kanpur Dehat 4.04 percent, Sitapur 3.74 percent, Hardoi 3.60 percent, Hamirpur 3.16 percent, Sultanpur 2.79 percent, Rae Bareli 2.79 percent, Bahraich 2.50 percent, Allahabad 2.42 percent, Gonda 1.91 percent, Banda 1.76 percent, Basti 1.47 percent, Lucknow and Gorakhpur 1.40 percent each, Azamgarh 1.32 percent, Faizabad, Kheri and Jaunpur 1.25 percent each, Balrampur 1.17 percent, Kannoij 1.10 percent and other districts of Uttar Pradesh 8.96 percent. The other districts of Uttar Pradesh include Varanasi, Sant Kabir Nagar, Tanda, Etawah, Mahoba, Jalaun, Pratapgarh, Kaushambi, Aligarh, Amroha, Amedkar Nagar, Nainital, Barabanki, Sidhart Nagar, Bulandshahar, Kashganj, Farrukhabad, Agra, Oraiya, Ballia, Bhadohi (Sant Ravidas Nagar), Ghaziabad, Mainpuri, Deoria, Amethi, Meerut and Jhansi.

The districts of other states of India contributed 4.48 percent houseless migrants to the houseless population of the Kanpur city, while the places of origin of 5.80 percent houseless migrants are not known.

Zone wise analysis of data given in Table 6.5 brings the fact into light that most of the houseless migrants in the city have migrated mainly from three districts of Uttar Pradesh namely Kanpur Nagar itself, Unnao and Fatehpur which combinedly registered 32.56, 57.15, 57.85, 47.02, 30.41 and 43.44 percent in Zones 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 respectively. In Zone 1, the Sitapur and Rae Bareli districts also contributed significant proportion (more than four percent) of houseless migrants i.e. 6.47 and 4.14 percent respectively. Hamirpur (5.36 percent) in Zone 2, Kanpur Dehat (5.71 percent) and Jaunpur (4.29 percent) in Zone 3, Hardoi (7.57 percent) and Gonda (5.41 percent) in Zone 4, Banda (6.43 percent) and Kanpur Dehat and Hamirpur (11.11 percent each) in Zone 5, and Kanpur Dehat (5.56 percent), Sitapur (4.04 percent), Hardoi (7.07 percent) and Bahraich (6.57 percent) in Zone 6 contributed significant proportion of houseless population in the Kanpur city through migration.

6.2.5. States of India as places of origin

Table 6.6 provides the data about percent distribution of houseless population migrated from the different states of India. The data listed in Table 6.6 designates that more than four-fifth (88.78 percent) proportion of houseless migrants out of the total migrants originated within the country has migrated from the state of Uttar Pradesh, followed by Bihar (3.13 percent), Maharashtra (0.58 percent), Madhya Pradesh (0.51 percent), West Bengal (0.44 percent) and other states (0.87 percent). The houseless migrants whose places of origin are not known are accounted 5.68 percent while the category of other states includes the states of Jharkhand (0.29 percent), Punjab (0.22 percent), Haryana (0.15 percent), Jammu & Kashmir, and union territory of Delhi and state of Assam (0.07 percent each).

Table 6.6: Percentage Distribution of Houseless Population Migrated from Different States of India

Zones	Male/ Female	Houseless Migrated from the states of India							
		Uttar Pradesh	Bihar	Maharashtra	Madhya Pradesh	West Bengal	Others	Not Known	Total
Zone 1	Male	84.73	4.39	0.38	0.95	0.76	1.72	7.06	100.00
	Female	72.00	-	-	-	-	-	28.00	100.00
	Total	84.15	4.19	0.36	0.91	0.73	1.64	8.01	100.00
Zone 2	Male	91.09	1.98	-	-	0.99	-	5.94	100.00
	Female	50.00	10.00	-	-	-	-	40.00	100.00
	Total	87.39	2.70	-	-	0.90	-	9.01	100.00
Zone 3	Male	92.00	2.40	4.00	-	-	-	1.60	100.00
	Female	86.36	4.55	-	-	4.55	-	4.55	100.00
	Total	91.16	2.72	3.40	-	0.68	-	2.04	100.00
Zone 4	Male	92.90	4.92	0.55	-	-	0.55	1.09	100.00
	Female	75.00	-	-	8.33	-	8.33	8.33	100.00
	Total	91.79	4.62	0.51	0.51	-	1.03	1.54	100.00
Zone 5	Male	92.36	1.27	-	0.64	-	-	5.73	100.00
	Female	81.25	6.25	-	-	-	-	12.50	100.00
	Total	91.33	1.73	-	0.58	-	-	6.36	100.00
Zone 6	Male	96.02	0.57	-	-	-	0.57	2.84	100.00
	Female	90.91	-	-	-	-	-	9.09	100.00
	Total	95.45	0.51	-	-	-	0.51	3.54	100.00
Total	Male	89.65	3.16	0.63	0.47	0.39	0.87	4.82	100.00
	Female	78.50	2.80	-	0.93	0.93	0.93	15.89	100.00
	Total	88.78	3.13	0.58	0.51	0.44	0.87	5.68	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

An examination of the Table 6.6 shows that in each zone of the city, more than four-fifth houseless migrants have their place of origin in the state of Uttar Pradesh. The greatest share of houseless migrants who migrated from Uttar Pradesh is registered in Zone 6 and the least in Zone 1. Moreover, the proportion of houseless male migrants is higher than the female migrants in all the zones of the city except in Zone 1 where the number of houseless female migrants exceeds the male migrants. Zone 4 received maximum number of houseless migrants from Bihar (4.62 percent) apart from Uttar Pradesh in the whole city. Gender wise analysis of houseless migrants migrated from Bihar shows that the ratio of females surmounts the males in Zones 2, 3 and 5 whereas Zones 1, 4 and 6 did not record any single female migrant from Bihar. As can be seen from the Table 6.6, the houseless migrants who have migrated from Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, West Bengal and other states & union territories of India are accounted less than one percent in the city. The houseless migrants who have come from Maharashtra are identified in Zones 1, 3 and 4, while those moved from Madhya Pradesh are observed in Zones 1, 4 and 5. Zones 1, 2 and 3 witnessed houseless migrants from West Bengal and the houseless migrants from other states & union territories of India are registered in Zones 1, 4, and 6. The share of houseless migrants in the Kanpur city whose places of origin are not known is limited within the maximum and minimum range of 9.01 and 1.54 percent respectively.

6.2.6. Countries of the world as places of origin

The Table 6.7 provides data about the percentage distribution of houseless population emigrated from different countries to the Kanpur city. Table 6.7 shows that more than 99 percent (i.e. 99.34 percent) of the houseless in-migrants who have been found in the Kanpur city during the survey have their places of origin in various parts of India.

The other countries from where the houseless population in the city has emigrated are Nepal and Bangladesh which supplied 0.59 and 0.07 percent houseless immigrants respectively. Moreover, Zone 1 has recorded the houseless immigrants from Nepal (1.26 percent) and Bangladesh (0.18 percent). However, Zone 3 observed houseless immigrants only from Nepal (0.70 percent) apart from India. A notable feature about the houseless immigrants who have emigrated from outside of India is that the category of houseless immigrants is dominated wholly by males, with not a single houseless female immigrant been found in the Kanpur city.

Table 6.7: Percentage Distribution of Houseless Population Migrated from Countries

Zones	Male/Female	Houseless migrated from countries			
		India	Nepal	Bangladesh	Total
Zone 1	Male	98.50	1.32	0.19	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	98.56	1.26	0.18	100.00
Zone 2	Male	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	100.00	-	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	99.17	0.83	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	99.30	0.70	-	100.00
Zone 4	Male	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	100.00	-	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	100.00	-	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	100.00	-	-	100.00
Total	Male	99.28	0.64	0.08	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	99.34	0.59	0.07	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

6.2.7. Different places of origin of houseless population

Table 6.8 gives the percent distribution of houseless population by places of origin. The table exhibits that the majority of houseless population found in the Kanpur city has its places of origin in different districts of Uttar Pradesh excluding Kanpur Nagar district (60.34 percent), followed by people from within the Kanpur city (18.40 percent), within Kanpur Nagar district excluding Kanpur city (10.63 percent), within Indian states excluding Uttar Pradesh (9.97 percent), and other countries (0.66 percent).

The proportion of houseless females who have their native places within the Kanpur city, within Kanpur Nagar district excluding Kanpur city, and within Indian states excluding Uttar Pradesh, overcomes the houseless male population but the reverse trend has been witnessed among the houseless persons who have their native places within Uttar Pradesh excluding Kanpur Nagar district and other countries. Houseless females are observed in each category of places of origin except the category of other countries in which no female has been recorded while the houseless males are found in all the categories.

Table 6.8: Percentage Distribution of Houseless Population by their Places of Origin

Zones	Male/ Female	Places of origin of houseless population					Total
		Within the Kanpur city	Within Kanpur Nagar district excluding Kanpur city	Within U.P. excluding Kanpur Nagar district	Within Indian states excluding U.P.	Other countries	
Zone 1	Male	11.65	10.71	61.09	15.04	1.50	100.00
	Female	28.00	32.00	12.00	28.00	-	100.00
	Total	12.39	11.67	58.89	15.62	1.44	100.00
Zone 2	Male	26.21	14.56	48.54	10.68	-	100.00
	Female	25.00	33.33	-	41.67	-	100.00
	Total	26.55	16.81	42.48	14.16	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	19.01	8.26	67.77	4.13	0.83	100.00
	Female	13.64	9.09	63.64	13.64	-	100.00
	Total	18.18	8.39	67.13	5.59	0.70	100.00
Zone 4	Male	25.29	4.12	70.59	-	-	100.00
	Female	36.36	9.09	36.36	18.18	-	100.00
	Total	26.11	4.44	68.89	0.56	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	10.83	9.55	71.97	7.64	-	100.00
	Female	31.25	31.25	18.75	18.75	-	100.00
	Total	12.72	11.56	67.05	8.67	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	28.98	8.52	58.52	3.98	-	100.00
	Female	27.27	27.27	36.36	9.09	-	100.00
	Total	28.79	10.61	56.06	4.55	-	100.00
Total	Male	17.73	9.46	63.04	9.06	0.72	100.00
	Female	26.42	24.53	28.30	20.75	-	100.00
	Total	18.40	10.63	60.34	9.97	0.66	100.00

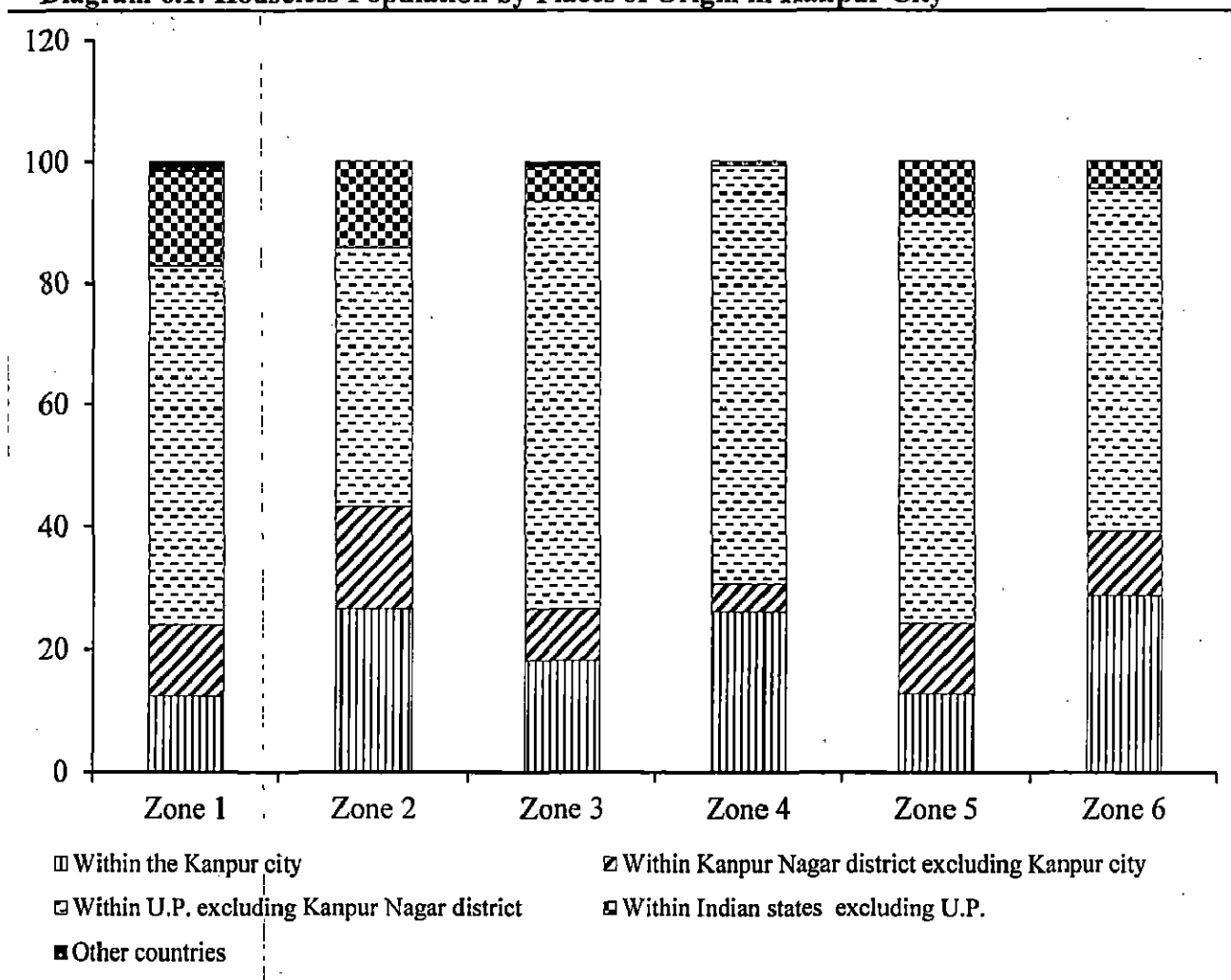
Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher

The close scrutiny of Table 6.8 would reveal that the percentage of houseless people who have their native places within Uttar Pradesh excluding Kanpur Nagar district recorded more than fifty percent share in each zone of the city barring Zone 2 wherein it accounted less than fifty percent (42.48 percent) but greater than people in any other category. Apart from the houseless people having their places of origin within Uttar Pradesh excluding Kanpur Nagar district, the houseless persons from within the Kanpur city constitute the second largest share in all the zones excluding Zone 1 wherein the second largest share is composed by the houseless people from within the Indian states excluding Uttar Pradesh (vide Diagram 6.1).

Table 6.8 also reveals that the houseless population having its places of origin within Kanpur Nagar district excluding Kanpur city registered the highest share 16.81 percent in Zone 2 and the lowest 4.44 percent in Zone 4. The largest share of houseless males and females, among all the categories, has been witnessed in the category of those who are from

within Uttar Pradesh excluding Kanpur Nagar district, accounting 71.97 percent in Zone 5 and 63.64 percent in Zone 3 respectively.

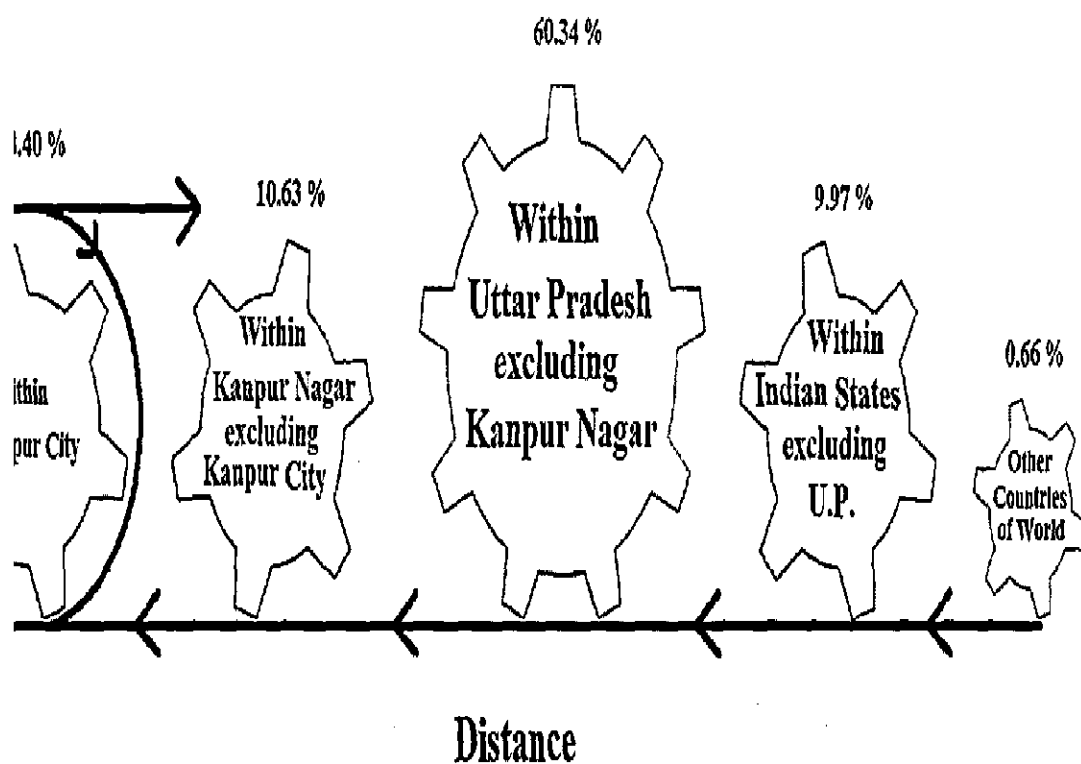
Diagram 6.1: Houseless Population by Places of Origin in Kanpur City



Source: Based on Table 6.8.

Moreover, the real universal fact is very clearly revealed from the Illustration 6.1 that the volume of flow of houseless population is inversely proportional to the distance from the Kanpur city because flow of houseless population from other countries of the world and from Indian states excluding state of Uttar Pradesh combinedly was registered only 10.63 percent while remaining proportion (89.37 percent) of houseless population have their permanent residential base in the state of Uttar Pradesh. Moreover, among the houseless population who originated within the state of Uttar Pradesh and flown from there towards the city, half proportion (44.05 percent) of houseless persons were accounted by only four neighbouring districts Kanpur city namely Kanpur Nagar (23.72 percent), Unnao (10.06 percent), Fatehpur (6.68 percent) and Kanpur Dehat (4.04 percent).

6.1: Places of Origin of Houseless Population and Their Flow Towards the Kanpur City



based on the simplification of primary data carried out by the researcher.

Thus, the models like large number of migrants move to a short distance (Raventein, 1989: 241-303), gravity or distance decay (Newton, 1729: 392 and Stouffer, 1960: 1-26) i.e. the movement of persons between two centres would be directly proportional to the product of their population and inversely proportional to the square of distance between them (Reilly, 1929: and James, 1972: 517), power of any area to attract people, goods and information depends on its size of its economic base and distance (Zipf, 1941 and 1949, Jones, 1981: 214-215 and Stewart, 1950: 239-253), etc. have been proved by this model (see Illustration 6.1).

6.3. Push and pull factors of migration

In essence, there are two forces, namely, push and pull which act as determinants of migration. The push set stands for all variables of dis-satisfaction and the pull set for all types of lure. Though basic as they are, it often becomes difficult to differentiate between them when several variables of both types operate and interact simultaneously (Bogue, 1969: 753).

However, in every area there are innumerable factors that act to hold the people within the area or attract the people of other areas to it and also there are others which drive them away. Since it is not possible to specify a precise set of factors which stimulates or retards migration in case of every person or area, so most of generalisations relating to the determinants of migration are complex in nature (Khan, 2010: 33).

6.3.1. Push factors of migration of houseless population

The percent distribution of data about the push factors of houseless migration has been provided in the Table 6.9. It would be seen from the Table 6.9 that economic reasons, by far, predominate among the push factors of houseless migration in comparison to social, biological and natural calamities. The economic push factors account 92.16 percent for houseless migration, followed by social (5.83 percent) and biological (1.76 percent) push factors, and natural calamities (0.25 percent).

An examination of the data given in Table 6.9 describes that the houseless male migrants are the result of economic push factors while female migrants are produced more by social, biological and natural push factors. About ninety percent houseless migrants in each zone of the city are the result of economic push factors, their range varying from 93.73 percent in Zone 1 to 88.44 percent in Zone 6. The percental array of houseless migrants produced by the social factors ranges from the lowest 4.19 percent in Zone 1 to the highest 10.02 percent in Zone 6 and for biological factors, it ranges from 1.02 percent to 3.46 percent. The maximum

proportion of houseless migrants caused by the natural calamities is registered 1.27 percent in Zone 4 (see Figure 6.3).

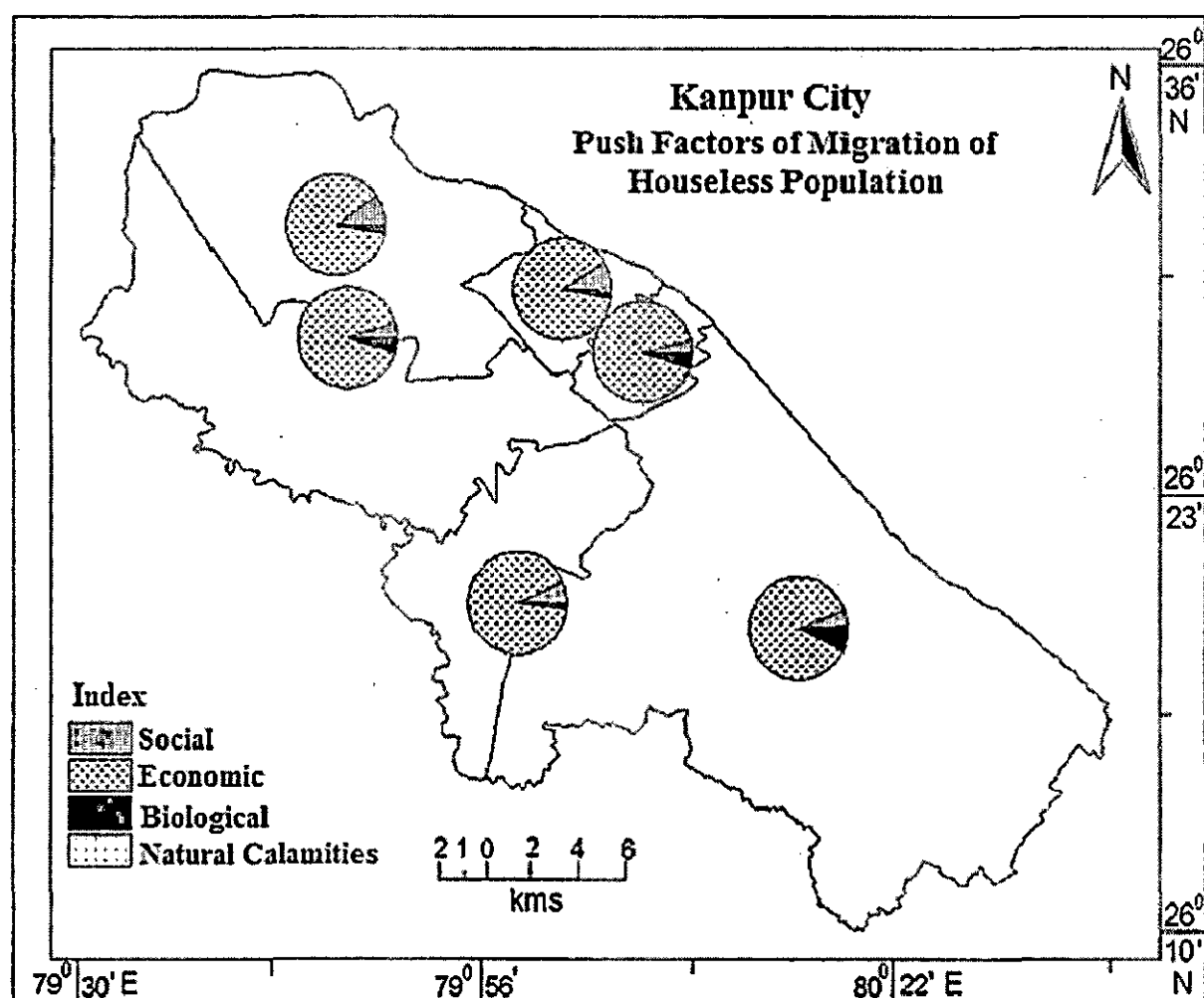
The natural calamities which pushed the people to move from their places of living include floods, droughts, fire, etc. that damage their agriculture, house, properties and loss of family members too.

Table 6.9: Percent Distribution of Push Factors of Migration of Houseless Population

Zones	Male/Female	Push factors of migration				
		Social	Economic	Biological	Natural calamities	Total
Zone 1	Male	4.01	94.23	1.71	0.05	100.00
	Female	13.33	68.89	15.56	2.22	100.00
	Total	4.19	93.73	1.99	0.09	100.00
Zone 2	Male	4.18	93.13	2.69	-	100.00
	Female	50.00	25.00	25.00	-	100.00
	Total	5.76	90.78	3.46	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	5.94	92.92	0.91	0.23	100.00
	Female	12.96	85.19	1.85	-	100.00
	Total	6.71	92.07	1.02	0.20	100.00
Zone 4	Male	7.50	90.54	0.82	1.14	100.00
	Female	60.00	20.00	13.33	6.67	100.00
	Total	8.76	88.85	1.11	1.27	100.00
Zone 5	Male	3.61	95.40	0.99	-	100.00
	Female	32.00	52.00	16.00	-	100.00
	Total	4.73	93.69	1.58	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	7.53	91.21	1.05	0.21	100.00
	Female	39.02	56.10	4.88	-	100.00
	Total	10.02	88.44	1.35	0.19	100.00
Total	Male	4.96	93.39	1.43	0.21	100.00
	Female	27.08	61.98	9.90	1.04	100.00
	Total	5.83	92.16	1.76	0.25	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Table 6.9 visualises that the share of houseless male migrants predominate the houseless female migrants in all the zones of the city among houseless migrants engendered by economic push factors. On the other hand, the proportion of houseless female migrants, aroused by the social, biological and natural push factors, exceeded the houseless male migrants in each zone. However, Zones 2, 3, 5 and 6 did not witness any female migration caused by the natural calamities.



Source: Based on table 6.9.

Fig. 6.3

6.3.1. a. Social push factors

Table 6.10 exhibits the percentage distribution of data about social push factors of houseless population in the city. The data listed in Table 6.10 provides the information that more than two-third of the houseless migrants in the city has migrated from their native places due to the non-availability of houses and/or space. More than two-third share of houseless migrants is also caused due to having no family, family tensions and because of marriage. It means that among all the social push factors, no house/space, no family, family tensions and marriage combinedly resulted for more than three-fourth (i.e. 78.59 percent) houseless migrants in the city while other remaining social push factors namely, come in the city with parents (4.21 percent), disputes (3.51 percent), orphans (2.81 percent), throwaways (2.46 percent), large family size and un-intentional moving 1.75 percent each, substance abuse (1.40 percent), and others (3.51 percent) altogether determined only 21.41 percent houseless migrants.

Percent Distribution of Social Push Factors of Migration of Houseless Population

Male/ Female	Social push factors of migration												
	No house/ space	No family	Family tension	After marriage	Come with parents	Disputes	Orphan	Thrown away	Large family size	Un-intentional moving	Substance abuse	Others	Total
Male	26.97	23.60	12.36	1.12	2.25	3.37	7.87	6.74	5.62	-	3.37	6.74	100.00
Female	33.33	-	-	50.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16.67	100.00
Total	27.37	22.11	11.58	4.21	2.11	3.16	7.37	6.32	5.26	-	3.16	7.37	100.00
Male	57.14	21.43	7.14	-	-	14.29	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Female	33.33	50.00	-	16.67	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Total	50.00	30.00	5.00	5.00	-	10.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Male	50.00	15.38	23.08	-	-	7.69	-	-	-	3.85	-	-	100.00
Female	42.86	0.00	-	57.14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Total	48.48	12.12	18.18	12.12	-	6.06	-	-	-	3.03	-	-	100.00
Male	41.30	21.74	13.04	-	10.87	2.17	-	-	-	6.52	-	4.35	100.00
Female	11.11	11.11	22.22	44.44	11.11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Total	36.36	20.00	14.55	7.27	10.91	1.82	-	-	-	5.45	-	3.64	100.00
Male	27.27	13.64	22.73	18.18	4.55	4.55	-	4.55	-	-	4.55	-	100.00
Female	12.50	37.50	12.50	25.00	-	-	-	-	-	12.50	-	-	100.00
Total	23.33	20.00	20.00	20.00	3.33	3.33	-	3.33	-	3.33	3.33	-	100.00
Male	61.11	8.33	13.89	-	8.33	2.78	2.78	-	-	-	-	2.78	100.00
Female	43.75	12.50	-	43.75	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Total	55.77	9.62	9.62	13.46	5.77	1.92	1.92	-	-	-	-	1.92	100.00
Male	39.48	18.88	14.59	2.15	4.72	4.29	3.43	3.00	2.15	1.72	1.72	3.86	100.00
Female	30.77	17.31	5.77	40.38	1.92	-	-	-	-	1.92	-	1.92	100.00
Total	37.89	18.60	12.98	9.12	4.21	3.51	2.81	2.46	1.75	1.75	1.40	3.51	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The category of other social push factors includes the communalism, remarriage of parents and being alone 0.70 percent each and fear of the head of the village, loss of family members, forced by relatives and love matters 0.35 percent each (look Box 6.1).

Box 6.1: Factors of Migration of Houseless Population

1. "Mother brought me to the Kanpur city at the age of 3, and got me married to a beggar" (Zohra: 37, Kanpur Nagar).
2. "My mother eloped with another man long before and my father got remarried, and I runaway from there" (Rinko: 35, Kanpur Nagar).
3. "My mother had died and father got remarried, that is why I ranaway from home as I could no longer live there" (Imran: 26, Allahabad).
4. "My father was a drunkard and got remarried while my mother had already passed away" (Banti: 19, Madhya Pradesh).
5. "The value of Nepali currency is lower than Indian currency, that is why we used to come here to earn and live on the footpaths" (Ganesh Prashad Shamaa: 50 and Suraj: 30, Nepal).

Source: Based on primary survey by the researcher.

Further analysis of the Table 6.10 depicts that the ratio of houseless male migrants pushed by all social factors exceeds the female migrants except in the case of marriage as a social factor wherein an extra-ordinary opposite condition has been registered. The share of houseless migrants determined by no house/space is observed above one-third in four zones i.e. Zones 2, 3, 4 and 6 and less than one-third but more than one-fourth in Zone 1 and Zone 5. Further, the share of houseless male migrants caused by no house/space is greater than female migrants in all the zones except in Zone 1. Moreover, nearly one-fourth houseless migrants produced by the no family as a social push factor are recorded in four zones (Zones 1, 2, 4 and 5). While the ratio of female migrants overrides the male migrants in three zones namely Zones 2, 5 and 6, Zone 4 witnessed larger percent value of male migrants than the female migrants, whereas Zone 1 and Zone 3 did not record any female migrants caused by no family.

It will be seen from the Table 6.10 that the family tensions and marriage, each accounting 20.00 percent, forced the houseless migrants to move from their native places. The highest percentage of houseless male migrants (22.73 percent) due to family tensions and of female migrants (25.00 percent) due to marriage is observed in Zone 5. Come in the city with parents and disputes registered maximum fraction of houseless migrants in Zone 4 (10.91

percent) and Zone 2 (10.00 percent) respectively as social factors that pushed the people to render as houseless in the city while the share of other social push factors like being orphans, throwaways, having large family size, un-intentional moving, substance abuse and others are limited within ten percent in causing the problem of houselessness in the area under study.

6.3.1. b. Economic push factors

The data about the economic push factors for male and female houseless migration are set out in Table 6.11. It will be seen from the table that the prevalence of unemployment at the places of origin of houseless population has caused nearly one-fifth (20.37 percent) of the houselessness in the city, and absence of regular work and low wages also significantly produced the houseless migrants (28.85 percent). Subsequently the share of houseless migrants pushed by economic factors into the city are as follows: landlessness (9.95 percent), late payment (9.44 percent), poverty (9.06 percent), arduous nature of work (6.91 percent), shyness to work (5.51 percent), small land holdings (4.95 percent), lack of civic amenities (4.13 percent), and others (0.82 percent). However, other push factors are composed of loss of land/house (0.29 percent), no income but more expenditure and house sold (0.18 percent each), no begging scope and small towns (0.04 percent each), cheap inferior cities, house damage, low value of currency and no demand of artifacts (0.02 percent each).

An analysis of the data given in Table 6.11 vividly shows that all the economic push factors caused much more male migrants compared to females, barring the factors of unemployment, absence of work and poverty which resulted more in female migrants than males. The unemployment, absence of regular work, low wages and late payment combinedly have forced more than three-fifth (60.57 percent) of the houseless people to move from their places of birth in Zone 1, and nearly same proportion of houseless migrants in Zone 2 is produced by the unemployment, absence of regular work, low wages and poverty (60.94 percent). The factors of unemployment, absence of regular work, low wages and landlessness altogether are responsible for more than half of the houseless population to leave their native places as witnessed in Zone 3 (63.35 percent), Zone 4 (57.70 percent), Zone 5 (59.93 percent), and Zone 6 (59.90 percent). Moreover, other economic factors which impelled more than 10 percent people to move consist of poverty in Zone 3 (12.80 percent) and Zone 6 (12.64 percent), and late payment in Zone 5 (10.10 percent). The ratio of remaining economic push factors driving the houseless persons from their places of origin ranges from one to within ten percent in whole city.

Table 6.11: Percent Distribution of Economic Push Factors of Migration of Houseless Population

Economic push factors of migration													
Zones	Male/ Female	Unemployment	Absence of regular work	Low wages	Landlessness	Late payment	Poverty	Arduous nature of work	Shyness to work	Small land holdings	Lack of civic amenities	Others	Total
Zone 1	Male	19.50	15.15	14.77	9.13	11.23	7.31	8.51	5.83	3.78	4.11	0.67	100.00
	Female	22.58	9.68	12.90	6.45	9.68	12.90	3.23	-	6.45	6.45	9.68	100.00
	Total	19.55	15.07	14.74	9.09	11.21	7.40	8.43	5.75	3.82	4.15	0.80	100.00
	Male	23.08	14.74	12.18	8.01	9.29	10.58	6.41	6.41	3.85	5.13	0.32	100.00
Zone 2	Female	66.67	-	-	-	-	33.33	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	23.49	14.60	12.06	7.94	9.21	10.79	6.35	6.35	3.81	5.08	0.32	100.00
	Male	19.90	16.95	13.02	13.27	5.90	11.30	2.21	5.41	7.13	4.42	0.49	100.00
	Female	32.61	28.26	-	4.35	2.17	26.09	-	4.35	-	-	2.17	100.00
Zone 3	Total	21.19	18.10	11.70	12.36	5.52	12.80	1.99	5.30	6.40	3.97	0.66	100.00
	Male	19.64	13.51	13.69	10.99	9.01	9.01	8.65	4.32	6.49	3.60	1.08	100.00
	Female	-	-	-	33.33	-	33.33	-	-	-	-	33.33	100.00
	Total	19.53	13.44	13.62	11.11	8.96	9.14	8.60	4.30	6.45	3.58	1.25	100.00
Zone 5	Male	19.79	16.52	12.91	11.02	10.15	8.26	6.20	3.61	6.37	4.65	0.52	100.00
	Female	7.69	-	15.38	23.08	7.69	15.38	7.69	7.69	7.69	-	7.69	100.00
	Total	19.53	16.16	12.96	11.28	10.10	8.42	6.23	3.70	6.40	4.55	0.67	100.00
	Male	23.39	13.53	13.30	10.09	4.36	11.70	4.13	8.26	6.19	3.90	1.15	100.00
Zone 6	Female	21.74	21.74	4.35	4.35	17.39	30.43	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	23.31	13.94	12.85	9.80	5.01	12.64	3.92	7.84	5.88	3.70	1.09	100.00
	Male	20.24	15.10	13.89	10.02	9.49	8.69	7.05	5.59	5.02	4.20	0.71	100.00
	Female	25.21	17.65	5.88	7.56	7.56	22.69	1.68	2.52	2.52	1.68	5.04	100.00
Total	Total	20.37	15.17	13.68	9.95	9.44	9.06	6.91	5.51	4.95	4.13	0.82	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

As may be seen from the Table 6.11, houseless migrants are determined by each and every economic push factor in all the zones, mainly by unemployment, absence of regular work, low wages, landlessness and poverty. However, houseless female migrants are limited in few categories under the economic push factors only in selected zones of the city.

6.3.1. c. Biological push factors

Table 6.12 contains the data pertaining to biological push factors of migration of houseless population. This table depicts very clearly that mental illness is the main detrimental push factor of migration which recorded 95.35 percent, followed by the parents' illness/death (2.33 percent), blindness and depression (1.16 percent each). The houseless male migrants are produced by the mental illness (94.03 percent), parents' illness/death (2.99 percent), blindness and depression (1.49 percent each), whereas the female migrants are hundred percent decided by the mental illness.

Table 6.12: Percent Distribution of Biological Push Factors of Migration of Houseless Population

Zones	Male/Female	Biological push factors of migration				
		Mental illness	Parents' illness/death	Blindness	Depression	Total
Zone 1	Male	97.37	2.63	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	97.78	2.22	-	-	100.00
Zone 2	Male	88.89	11.11	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	91.67	8.33	-	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	50.00	-	25.00	25.00	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	60.00	-	20.00	20.00	100.00
Zone 4	Male	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
Total	Male	94.03	2.99	1.49	1.49	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	95.35	2.33	1.16	1.16	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Zone wise analysis of the data shows that among the biological push factors, mental illness is responsible for hundred percent houseless females' migration in all the zones of the city. Houseless male migrants are also hundred percent induced by the mental illness in Zones 4, 5 and 6, by mental illness and parents' illness/death in Zone 1 and Zone 2, and by mental illness, blindness and depression in Zone 3.

6.3.1. d. Various socio-economic push factors

A very detailed account of percent distribution of data about various push factors of migration of houseless population has been inserted in Table 6.13. An assessment of the data listed in this table indicates that among the socio-economic causes of migration, the ratio of economic causes exceeds the social causes and the number of economic factors is also larger than the social factors excluding the category of others. The economic push factors, namely unemployment, absence of regular work, low wages, landlessness, late payment, poverty, arduous nature of work, small land holdings and lack of civic amenities, determine more than four-fifth proportion of houseless population (86.33 percent) to migrate from their places of birth, whereas the social causes like shyness to work, no house/space, mental illness and no family impelled only 10.05 percent persons to migrate, while others factors recorded merely 3.62 percent. The unemployment and absence of regular work forced nearly one-third people (32.75 percent) to move from their native places.

Others push factors of migration are the composite index of family tensions, marriage, loss of land/house, natural calamities, coming/moving in the city with parents, disputes, house sold, no income but more expenditure, being orphan or thrown away, large family size, unintentional moving, substance abuse, communalism, being alone, parents remarriage, parents' illness/death, no begging scope, small towns, fear of the head of the village, no demand for artifacts, blindness, depression, low value of currency, inferior city, loss of family members, house damage, being forced by relatives and love matter, which altogether registered 3.62 percent of houseless migrants in the city. The respective figures for houseless males and females are 3.03 and 18.23 percent. The ratio of houseless male migrants is recorded higher than the females in all migration inducing categories excluding a few namely poverty, no house/space, mental illness, no family and others in which females overstepped the males. It is also very interesting to note that the houseless female migration inducing factors are mainly social in nature while male migration is decided mainly by the economic factors.

Percent Distribution of Various Socio-Economic Push Factors of Migration of Houseless Population

Male/ Female	Various socio-economic push factors of migration													
	Unemployment	Absence of regular work	Low wages	Landlessness	Late payment	Poverty	Arduous nature of work	Shyness to work	Small land holdings	Lack of civic amenities	No house/ space	Mental illness	No family	Others
Male	18.38	14.28	13.92	8.60	10.59	6.89	8.02	5.50	3.56	3.87	1.08	1.67	0.95	2.70
Female	15.56	6.67	8.89	4.44	6.67	8.89	2.22	-	4.44	4.44	4.44	15.56	-	17.78
Total	18.32	14.13	13.82	8.52	10.51	6.93	7.90	5.39	3.58	3.89	1.15	1.94	0.93	3.00
Male	21.49	13.73	11.34	7.46	8.66	9.85	5.97	5.97	3.58	4.78	2.39	2.39	0.90	1.49
Female	16.67	-	-	-	-	8.33	-	-	-	-	16.67	25.00	25.00	8.33
Total	21.33	13.26	10.95	7.20	8.36	9.80	5.76	5.76	3.46	4.61	2.88	3.17	1.73	1.73
Male	18.49	15.75	12.10	12.33	5.48	10.50	2.05	5.02	6.62	4.11	2.97	0.46	0.91	3.20
Female	27.78	24.07	-	3.70	1.85	22.22	-	3.70	-	-	5.56	1.85	-	9.26
Total	19.51	16.67	10.77	11.38	5.08	11.79	1.83	4.88	5.89	3.66	3.25	0.61	0.81	3.86
Male	17.78	12.23	12.40	9.95	8.16	8.16	7.83	3.92	5.87	3.26	3.10	0.82	1.63	4.89
Female	-	-	-	6.67	-	6.67	-	-	-	-	6.67	13.33	6.67	60.00
Total	17.36	11.94	12.10	9.87	7.96	8.12	7.64	3.82	5.73	3.18	3.18	1.11	1.75	6.21
Male	18.88	15.76	12.32	10.51	9.69	7.88	5.91	3.45	6.08	4.43	0.99	0.99	0.49	2.63
Female	4.00	-	8.00	12.00	4.00	8.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	-	4.00	16.00	12.00	20.00
Total	18.30	15.14	12.15	10.57	9.46	7.89	5.84	3.47	5.99	4.26	1.10	1.58	0.95	3.31
Male	21.34	12.34	12.13	9.21	3.97	10.67	3.77	7.53	5.65	3.56	4.60	1.05	0.63	3.56
Female	12.20	12.20	2.44	2.44	9.76	17.07	-	-	-	-	17.07	4.88	4.88	17.07
Total	20.62	12.33	11.37	8.67	4.43	11.18	3.47	6.94	5.20	3.28	5.59	1.35	0.96	4.62
Male	18.90	14.11	12.98	9.35	8.86	8.12	6.58	5.22	4.69	3.92	1.96	1.34	0.94	3.03
Female	15.63	10.94	3.65	4.69	4.69	14.06	1.04	1.56	1.56	1.04	8.33	9.90	4.69	18.23
Total	18.77	13.98	12.61	9.17	8.70	8.35	6.37	5.08	4.56	3.81	2.21	1.68	1.08	3.62

Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The unemployment is observed as the most significant push factor of houseless migration in all the zones, varying from the lowest 17.36 percent in Zone 4 to the highest 21.33 percent in Zone 2. The socio-economic causes of houseless migration which determined the volume of migration above ten percent are limited in few categories. For example, the problem of unemployment, absence of regular work and low wages each forced more than ten percent houseless people to migrate to the Kanpur city as witnessed in all the zones of the city. Landlessness in Zone 3 and Zone 4, late payment in Zone 1 and poverty in Zone 3 and Zone 6 also have been contributing more than ten percent houseless migrants in the city. Moreover, all the socio-economic push factors of migration of houseless population are observed to have contributed more than one percent as a cause of migration in each zone barring the factor of having no family which accounted less than one percent.

6.3.2. Pull factors of migration of houseless population

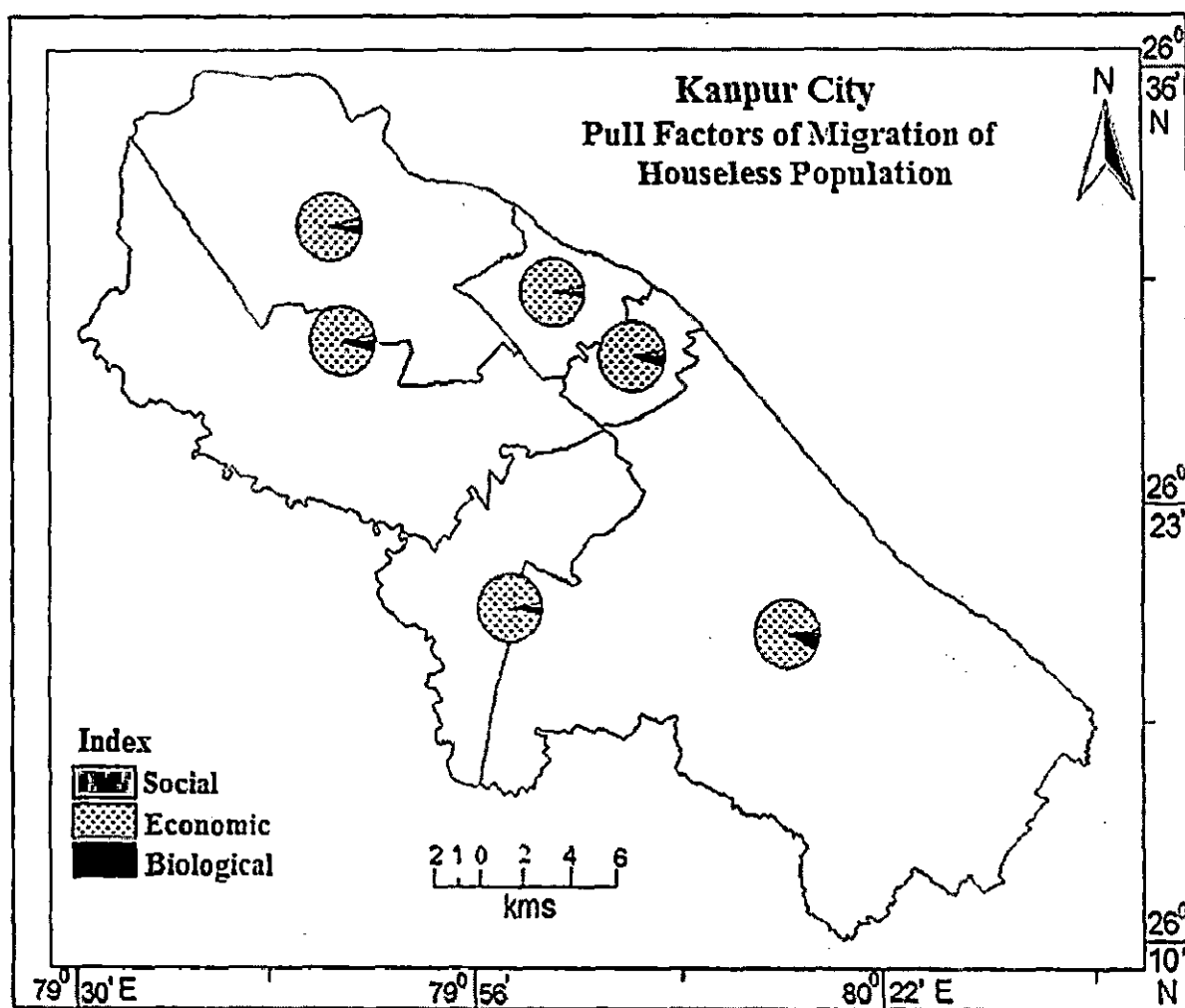
Table 6.14 presents data on the pull factors of migration of houseless population in the city.

Table 6.14: Percent Distribution of Pull Factors of Migration of Houseless Population in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/Female	Pull factors of migration			
		Social	Economic	Biological	Total
Zone 1	Male	2.65	95.52	1.83	100.00
	Female	13.16	68.42	18.42	100.00
	Total	2.87	94.96	2.17	100.00
Zone 2	Male	1.01	96.30	2.69	100.00
	Female	25.00	50.00	25.00	100.00
	Total	1.94	94.50	3.56	100.00
Zone 3	Male	1.28	98.08	0.64	100.00
	Female	4.69	93.75	1.56	100.00
	Total	1.69	97.56	0.75	100.00
Zone 4	Male	2.64	96.66	0.70	100.00
	Female	22.73	72.73	4.55	100.00
	Total	3.38	95.77	0.85	100.00
Zone 5	Male	2.19	95.98	1.83	100.00
	Female	14.81	74.07	11.11	100.00
	Total	2.79	94.95	2.26	100.00
Zone 6	Male	2.45	96.33	1.22	100.00
	Female	17.39	78.26	4.35	100.00
	Total	3.73	94.78	1.49	100.00
Total	Male	2.30	96.17	1.53	100.00
	Female	13.40	78.47	8.13	100.00
	Total	2.83	95.33	1.85	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

This table reveals that more than nine-tenth of the houseless migrants (95.33 percent) in the city are pulled by the economic factors, followed by the social (2.83 percent) and biological pull factors (1.85 percent). Like in the case of push factors of migration as explained in Table 6.9, Table 6.14 also depicts that the ratio of female migrants exceeded the male migrants caused by the social and biological pull factors but the ratio got reversed among the male (96.17 percent) and female migrants (78.47 percent) attracted by economic pull factors.



Source: Based on table 6.14. Fig. 6.4

The data placed in Table 6.14 also brings the fact into light that the ratio of houseless migrants anticipated by the economic factors are witnessed more than ninety percent in each zone of the city in comparison to social and biological factors (see Figure 6.4), with the share of houseless male migrants being observed greater than ninety-five percent in the total houseless male migrant population as well as higher than the female migrants in the whole city. The houseless female migrants caused by the economic pull factors also recorded more

than half share among the total female migrants in all the zones. The social pull factors of migration account maximum fraction of houseless migrants in Zone 6 i.e. 3.73 percent, whereas the highest figures for males and females are identified in Zone 1 (2.65 percent) and Zone 2 (25.00 percent) respectively. Likewise, the utmost figures for total as well as for male and female migrants separately exerted by the biological factors are registered in Zone 2 viz., 3.56, 2.69 and 25.00 percent respectively.

6.3.2. a. Social pull factors

The percent distribution of data about social pull factors of migration of houseless population has been introduced in the Table 6.15.

Table 6.15: Percent Distribution of Social Pull Factors of Migration of Houseless Population in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/ Female	Social pull factors of migration							
		Entertainment	For marriage	Relatives	Parents	Education	Un-intentional	Friends	Total
Zone 1	Male	89.58	2.08	2.08	2.08	2.08	-	2.08	100.00
	Female	-	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	81.13	11.32	1.89	1.89	1.89	-	1.89	100.00
Zone 2	Male	66.67	-	-	33.33	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	-	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	33.33	50.00	-	16.67	-	-	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	83.33	-	-	-	-	16.67	-	100.00
	Female	-	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	55.56	33.33	-	-	-	11.11	-	100.00
Zone 4	Male	66.67	-	6.67	20.00	-	6.67	-	100.00
	Female	-	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	50.00	25.00	5.00	15.00	-	5.00	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	66.67	16.67	8.33	-	8.33	-	-	100.00
	Female	-	75.00	25.00	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	50.00	31.25	12.50	-	6.25	-	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	66.67	16.67	8.33	-	8.33	-	-	100.00
	Female	-	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	40.00	50.00	5.00	-	5.00	-	-	100.00
Total	Male	79.17	5.21	4.17	5.21	3.13	2.08	1.04	100.00
	Female	-	96.43	3.57	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	61.29	25.81	4.03	4.03	2.42	1.61	0.81	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The data set up in Table 6.15 exhibits that more than three-fifth and one-fourth houseless migrants come to the Kanpur city for the entertainment purpose and for marriage respectively, whereas 12.90 percent houseless migrants have come to the city due to the relatives and parents (4.03 percent each), education (2.42 percent), un-intentionally (1.61 percent), and due to friends (0.81 percent). Houseless male migrants have come to the city by experiencing all the social pull factors as listed in the table but female migrants mainly come for marriage (96.43 percent) and because of relatives (3.57 percent).

Analysis of the Table 6.15 indicates that entertainment as a social pull factor attracted the largest proportion of houseless migrants in all the zones except in Zone 2 and Zone 6 wherein marriage occupied fifty percent share among all social pull factors. Houseless female migration in the whole city has been caused hundred percent due to marriage except in Zone 5 which experienced one-third female migration due to marriage and one-fourth due to relatives. Moreover, relatives in Zone 5, parents in Zone 2 and Zone 4, and un-intentional migration in Zone 3 have been observed to have occupied more than one-tenth share of houseless migrants in the study area.

6.3.2. b. Economic pull factors

Table 6.16 provides the percent distribution of data about economic pull factors of migration of houseless population which shows that more than two-fifth (40.35 percent) houseless in-migration to the city is mainly employment oriented (i.e. jobs and regular work). On the other hand, more than one-fourth (28.67 percent) houseless in-migrants in the city are pulled mainly by better income opportunities namely high wages and quick payment, followed by the in-migration due to civic facilities (9.25 percent), pomp & glare of city (6.29 percent), decent nature of work (6.12 percent), nearness to the city (3.71 percent), cheap city (3.23 percent), and others (2.39 percent). The other economic factors comprise the availability of space (2.10 percent), good begging scope (0.14 percent), high value of currency (0.07 percent), availability of food (0.05 percent), and familiarity with the city (0.02 percent).

Further examination of Table 6.16 reveals that there is no marked difference between the houseless male and female migrants among the categories of economic pull factors of migration but the ratio of females is extraordinarily higher in the category of 'others' than the houseless male migrants. About one-fourth of the houseless in each zone of the Kanpur city has migrated for jobs.

: Percent Distribution of Economic Pull Factors of Migration of Houseless Population in Kanpur City

Male/ Female	Economic pull factors of migration										Total
	Jobs	Regular work	High wages	Quick payment	Civic facilities	Pomp & glare of city	Decent nature of work	Nearness of city	Cheap city	Others	
Male	25.88	18.47	18.88	13.67	6.49	6.37	6.54	0.46	2.43	0.81	100.00
Female	38.46	11.54	11.54	11.54	-	3.85	7.69	-	-	15.38	100.00
Total	26.07	18.37	18.77	13.63	6.39	6.33	6.56	0.46	2.40	1.03	100.00
Male	25.17	20.98	17.48	13.29	7.69	4.55	6.29	1.05	1.05	2.45	100.00
Female	16.67	16.67	-	-	-	-	-	16.67	16.67	33.33	100.00
Total	25.00	20.89	17.12	13.01	7.53	4.45	6.16	1.37	1.37	3.08	100.00
Male	17.21	20.48	14.60	12.85	12.20	6.32	3.27	5.88	4.36	2.83	100.00
Female	25.00	25.00	21.67	20.00	1.67	-	-	1.67	-	5.00	100.00
Total	18.11	21.00	15.41	13.68	10.98	5.59	2.89	5.39	3.85	3.08	100.00
Male	19.45	17.45	12.73	10.00	13.09	4.91	7.64	6.00	5.27	3.45	100.00
Female	25.00	6.25	12.50	25.00	6.25	-	12.50	6.25	-	6.25	100.00
Total	19.61	17.14	12.72	10.42	12.90	4.77	7.77	6.01	5.12	3.53	100.00
Male	19.81	13.90	15.43	12.19	12.00	8.19	4.57	8.38	4.57	0.95	100.00
Female	15.00	10.00	5.00	5.00	25.00	-	-	15.00	5.00	20.00	100.00
Total	19.63	13.76	15.05	11.93	12.48	7.89	4.40	8.62	4.59	1.65	100.00
Male	20.34	15.47	14.19	9.11	10.81	8.05	8.26	5.93	3.18	4.66	100.00
Female	13.89	22.22	8.33	2.78	11.11	5.56	2.78	16.67	-	16.67	100.00
Total	19.88	15.94	13.78	8.66	10.83	7.87	7.87	6.69	2.95	5.51	100.00
Male	22.52	17.79	16.45	12.32	9.36	6.47	6.25	3.56	3.31	1.99	100.00
Female	23.17	18.29	13.41	12.80	6.71	1.83	3.05	7.32	1.22	12.20	100.00
Total	22.54	17.81	16.33	12.34	9.25	6.29	6.12	3.71	3.23	2.39	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The people who have come due to regular and high wages also accounted for a good amount of houseless population in the city, ranging from the highest 21.00 percent in Zone 3 to the lowest 12.72 percent in Zone 4 respectively. The economic pull factors of migration namely, jobs, regular work, high wages, quick payment and civic facilities resulted in more than 10 percent in-migrants in all the zones of the city excluding the category of quick payment in Zone 6, and of civic facilities in Zone 1 and Zone 2.

If the proportion of houseless migrants pulled by jobs, regular work, high wages and quick payment on one hand, and by civic facilities, pomp & glare of the city, decent nature of work, nearness of the city, cheap city on the other hand is compared, it is found that the factors like jobs, regular work, high wages and quick payment have together pulled houseless in-migrant population from 58.26 percent in Zone 6 to 76.84 percent in Zone 1, while the ratio of houseless migrants pulled by factors like civic facilities, pomp & glare of the city, decent nature of work, nearness of the city, cheap city altogether ranges from 20.90 percent in Zone 2 to 37.98 percent in Zone 5. No marked percental difference is noticed between male and female in-migrants except in the category of others.

6.3.2. c. Biological pull factors

The data about the biological pull factors of migration are set out in the Table 6.17. It will be seen from the table that more than ninth-tenth (91.36 percent) houseless migration has been caused due to mental illness, followed by the health services (7.41 percent), and depression (1.23 percent). Similarly, for the houseless male in-migrants in the city, mental illness, the health services and depression accounted 89.06, 9.38 and 1.56 percent respectively, while, the hundred percent female in-migrants are determined by only mental illness.

An examination of Table 6.17 exhibits that the houseless in-migration in Zones 1, 4, 5 and 6 has been hundred percent decided by the mental illness and health services in the city, but in Zone 3 it is decided by mental illness and depression, whereas mental illness is found to be the only biological pull factor responsible for houseless in-migrants in Zone 2. The houseless female in-migrants in all the zones of the city have been determined cent percent by mental illness. Moreover, houseless male in-migrants in the Zones of 1, 4, 5 and 6 have been decided by mental illness and health services, while, in Zone 3 by mental illness and depression and in Zone 2 only by mental illness.

Table 6.17: Percent Distribution of Biological Pull Factors of Migration of Houseless Population in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/Female	Biological pull factors of migration			
		Mental	Health services	Depression	Total
Zone 1	Male	90.91	9.09	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	92.50	7.50	-	100.00
Zone 2	Male	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	100.00	-	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	66.67	-	33.33	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	75.00	-	25.00	100.00
Zone 4	Male	75.00	25.00	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	80.00	20.00	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	90.00	10.00	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	92.31	7.69	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	83.33	16.67	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	87.50	12.50	-	100.00
Total	Male	89.06	9.38	1.56	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	100.00
	Total	91.36	7.41	1.23	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

6.3.2. d. Various socio-economic pull factors

An elaborated account of percent distribution of data about the various socio-economic pull factors of migration of houseless population has been entered in the Table 6.18. An analysis of the Table 6.18 indicates that more than one-fifth houseless in-migrants in the city were jobs oriented. The jobs, regular work and high wages in aggregate pulled more than half of the houseless in-migrants in the city, followed by the quick payment (11.76 percent), civic facilities (8.82 percent), pomp & glare of city (5.99 percent), decent nature of work (5.83 percent), nearness to the city (3.53 percent), cheap city (3.08 percent), availability of space (2.01 percent), entertainment (1.73 percent), mental illness (1.69 percent) and others (1.53 percent). The category of others include marriage 0.73 percent, health services and good scope of begging 0.14 percent each, relatives and parents 0.11 percent each, education and high value of currency 0.07 percent each, food and un-intentional migration 0.05 percent each, depression, friends and familiarity with the city 0.02 percent each.

Table 6.18: Percent Distribution of Various Socio-Economic Pull Factors of Migration of Houseless Population in Kanpur City

Pull factors of houseless migration															
Zones	Male/ Female	Jobs	Regular work	High wages	Quick payment	Civic facilities	Pomp & glare of city	Decent nature of work	Nearness of city	Cheap city	Space available	Entertainment	Mental illness	Others	Total
Zone 1	Male	24.72	17.64	18.03	13.05	6.19	6.08	6.25	0.44	2.32	0.55	2.38	1.66	0.66	100.00
	Female	26.32	7.89	7.89	7.89	-	2.63	5.26	-	-	7.89	-	18.42	15.79	100.00
	Total	24.76	17.44	17.82	12.95	6.07	6.01	6.23	0.43	2.28	0.70	2.33	2.00	0.98	100.00
Zone 2	Male	24.24	20.20	16.84	12.79	7.41	4.38	6.06	1.01	1.01	2.36	0.67	2.69	0.34	100.00
	Female	8.33	8.33	-	-	-	-	-	8.33	8.33	8.33	-	25.00	33.33	100.00
	Total	23.62	19.74	16.18	12.30	7.12	4.21	5.83	1.29	1.29	2.59	0.65	3.56	1.62	100.00
Zone 3	Male	16.88	20.09	14.32	12.61	11.97	6.20	3.21	5.77	4.27	2.14	1.07	0.43	1.07	100.00
	Female	23.44	23.44	20.31	18.75	1.56	-	-	1.56	-	4.69	-	1.56	4.69	100.00
	Total	17.67	20.49	15.04	13.35	10.71	5.45	2.82	5.26	3.76	2.44	0.94	0.56	1.50	100.00
Zone 4	Male	18.80	16.87	12.30	9.67	12.65	4.75	7.38	5.80	5.10	2.81	1.76	0.53	1.58	100.00
	Female	18.18	4.55	9.09	18.18	4.55	-	9.09	4.55	-	4.55	-	4.55	22.73	100.00
	Total	18.78	16.41	12.18	9.98	12.35	4.57	7.45	5.75	4.91	2.88	1.69	0.68	2.37	100.00
Zone 5	Male	19.01	13.35	14.81	11.70	11.52	7.86	4.39	8.04	4.39	0.91	1.46	1.65	0.91	100.00
	Female	11.11	7.41	3.70	3.70	18.52	-	-	11.11	3.70	14.81	-	11.11	14.81	100.00
	Total	18.64	13.07	14.29	11.32	11.85	7.49	4.18	8.19	4.36	1.57	1.39	2.09	1.57	100.00
Zone 6	Male	19.59	14.90	13.67	8.78	10.41	7.76	7.96	5.71	3.06	4.49	1.63	1.02	1.02	100.00
	Female	10.87	17.39	6.52	2.17	8.70	4.35	2.17	13.04	-	13.04	-	4.35	17.39	100.00
	Total	18.84	15.11	13.06	8.21	10.26	7.46	7.46	6.34	2.80	5.22	1.49	1.31	2.43	100.00
Total	Male	21.66	17.11	15.82	11.84	9.00	6.22	6.01	3.42	3.18	1.68	1.82	1.36	0.89	100.00
	Female	18.18	14.35	10.53	10.05	5.26	1.44	2.39	5.74	0.96	8.61	-	8.13	14.35	100.00
	Total	21.49	16.98	15.57	11.76	8.82	5.99	5.83	3.53	3.08	2.01	1.73	1.69	1.53	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

There are twelve main pull factors of houseless migration as listed in Table 6.18, in which ten are economic in nature and constitute the largest proportion of in-migrants, much greater than those attracted by social pull factors (i.e. entertainment and mental illness). The ratio of female in-migrants is recorded higher than the males only among the social factors i.e. entertainment and mental illness, but observed lesser among all the economic pull factors in comparison to males except under the factors like nearness to the city and availability of space wherein females exceed the males.

As can be seen from the Table 6.18, about one-fourth houseless in-migrants in Zone 1 are attracted by the job opportunities, significantly followed by the regular work 17.44 percent, high wages 17.82 percent and quick payment 12.95 percent. The respective figures for these factors in Zone 2 are 23.62, 19.74, 16.18 and 12.30 percent. The houseless in-migrants in Zone 3 due to pull factors are determined more than ten percentages by jobs, regular work, high wages, quick payment and civic facilities. These factors are also accounting for above ten percent houseless in-migrants in Zone 5. However, in Zone 4 and Zone 6, four pull factors namely jobs, regular work, high wages and civic facilities are found to be attracting the houseless in-migrants in considerable proportions i.e. more than 10 percent. All other remaining socio-economic pull factors of migration of houseless population are limited within the range of one to ten percent in all the zones of the Kanpur city. Nevertheless, they altogether are also significantly determining the volume of houseless in-migration into the study area.

6.4. Causes of houselessness

The causes of houselessness run the gamut of the loss of jobs, business closings, unemployment, changing nature of housing and employment opportunities, broken relationships, low level of education & skills, drug or alcohol addiction, family violence, physical & mental illness, fire in or condemnation of apartments, lack of affordable housing, long-term poverty, as well as the lack of supportive programmes for the poor, etc.

6.4.1. Socio-economic causes of houselessness

Zone wise percent distribution of data on the causes of houselessness in the Kanpur city is given in Table 6.19. The data in Table 6.19 depicts that nearly three-fourth (72.11 percent) proportion of the houseless population in Kanpur city is the upshot of the economic reasons while more than one-fifth (23.73 percent) people became houseless due to social causes, followed by the biological factors (3.97 percent) and natural calamities (0.19 percent). It

means that though the houselessness is a social phenomenon, most of its regulative genes lie in the economic arena; therefore, the diagnostic parameters to sweep the problem of houselessness have to be adopted in economic perspectives too. The volume of female houselessness is determined by the social and economic causes nearly at the ratio of fifty-fifty whereas the male houselessness is influenced by the economic and social causes in two-third and one-fourth proportion respectively.

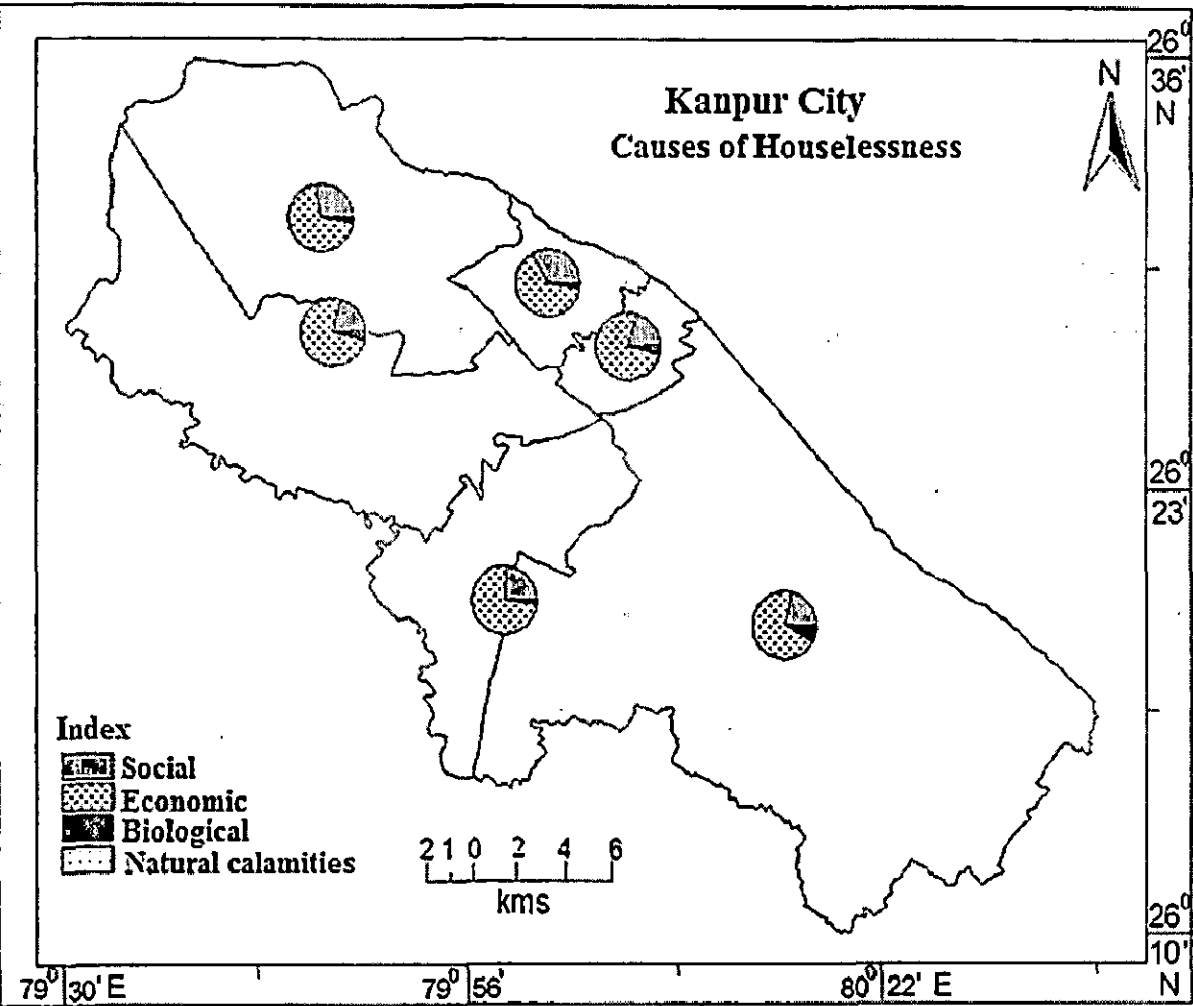
Table 6.19: Percent Distribution of Causes of Houselessness in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/Female	Causes of houselessness				
		Social	Economic	Biological	Natural Calamities	Total
Zone 1	Male	19.87	76.85	3.19	0.09	100.00
	Female	38.56	53.59	7.84	-	100.00
	Total	20.65	75.88	3.39	0.08	100.00
Zone 2	Male	19.72	77.02	3.11	0.16	100.00
	Female	61.82	30.91	7.27	-	100.00
	Total	23.03	73.39	3.43	0.14	100.00
Zone 3	Male	20.95	73.55	4.01	1.49	100.00
	Female	33.93	64.29	1.79	-	100.00
	Total	22.80	72.23	3.69	1.27	100.00
Zone 4	Male	31.40	62.89	5.63	0.09	100.00
	Female	57.89	28.95	13.16	-	100.00
	Total	33.11	60.70	6.11	0.08	100.00
Zone 5	Male	20.48	76.81	2.71	-	100.00
	Female	38.04	55.43	6.52	-	100.00
	Total	22.13	74.80	3.07	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	25.64	69.92	4.33	0.11	100.00
	Female	38.04	50.00	11.96	-	100.00
	Total	26.79	68.08	5.04	0.10	100.00
Total	Male	22.34	73.77	3.68	0.21	100.00
	Female	42.24	50.00	7.76	-	100.00
	Total	23.73	72.11	3.97	0.19	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The zone wise analysis indicates that the ratio of houselessness produced by the social causes in each zone of the city is recorded above twenty percent, the maximum and minimum percentages being registered 33.11 percent in Zone 4 and 20.65 percent in Zone 1 respectively. The economic causes responsible for houselessness accounted the largest share in all the zones of the city among all houselessness causing factors, and the range of houselessness resulted by the economic causes varies from the highest 75.88 percent in Zone 1 to the lowest 60.70 percent in Zone 4. As far as the biological reasons are concerned, they caused a lesser amount of houselessness in the city and do not impelled more than seven percent of the houseless

population in any of the zones, while other causes of houselessness are limited within one percent in all zones except in Zone 3 which observed 1.27 percent volume of houseless population under the category of other causes (see Figure 6.5).



Source: Based on table 6.19. Fig. 6.5

The ratio of female houselessness ascertained by the social causes exceeds the male houselessness in the whole city and even witnessed more than one-third proportion in each zone. On the other hand, the share of male houselessness ensured by the economic causes in the city overstepped the female houselessness. The houseless females again over exceed the houseless males in the study area caused by the biological factors, while no single houseless female has been recorded in the whole city induced by natural calamities.

6.4.1. a. Social causes

Table 6.20 gives detailed data about percent distribution of social causes of houselessness. This table expresses that among the social causes of houselessness, instability and no family

are the main causes in the city which accounted for nearly one-third (31.91 percent) share of houseless population.

The combined proportion of four social factors namely instability, no family, no siblings, no proof of ID produced 56.60 percent houselessness in the city. The subsequent significant social causes of houselessness in descending order are no relatives (9.50 percent), social persecution stigmatisation (6.05 percent), being widowed/divorced (3.96 percent), abandoned by the family (3.91 percent), being runaway (3.30 percent), parents houselessness (3.20 percent), domestic violence (2.85 percent), family breakdown (2.39 percent), orphanage (1.93 percent) and others (6.30 percent) (look Box 6.2).

Box 6.2: Social Causes of Houselessness Expressed by Houseless Population

1. "My mother had passed away and my father used to scold me, that's why I left home and came here when I was still in 8th standard" (Heera Lal: 32, Kannauj).
2. "I am motherless since my childhood as my mother ran away while I was in my early age" (Ravindra: 60, Rae Bareli).
3. "After being orphaned, my house and all my property was extorted by my uncle" (Raj Kumar: 28, Kanpur Nagar).
4. "I came here to earn money because my father was ill. I have to support my family too, that is why I am living here like this" (Nizamuddin: 19, Unnao).
5. "House owner has taken away all our luggage to replenish the house rent and we also submitted all domestic and kitchen items. Now we have nothing as you can see. It is raining and we don't even have a polythene to protect ourselves, we are waiting for the rain to stop so that we can cook our food" (Sheela: 52, Kanpur Nagar).
6. "Landlord extorted our entire luggage due to late rent payment when we were lodging in his house" (Suraj: 42, Assam).
7. "My uncle has extorted all my property i.e. house, luggage, jewellery, etc., and we came on the footpath" (Dinesh Kumar Gautam: 60, Punjab).
8. "My uncle has extorted our land. I, therefore, have to do this rag-picking in order to survive, and being a rag-picker I don't like to live in a house" (Ram: 32, Kanpur Nagar).

Source: Based on primary survey by the researcher.

Percent Distribution of Social Causes of Houselessness in Kanpur City

e/ ale	Social causes of houselessness														
	Instability	No Family	No Siblings	No proof of ID	No relatives	Social Persecution Stigmatisation	Widowed/ divorced	Abandoned by family	Runaway	Parents' houselessness	Domestic violence	Family breakdown	Orphan	Others	Total
e	5.16	20.23	19.08	17.79	13.63	4.88	4.73	2.01	3.30	0.43	2.15	1.29	0.72	4.59	100.00
ale	-	23.73	23.73	10.17	20.34	5.08	3.39	1.69	1.69	3.39	1.69	1.69	-	3.39	100.00
al	4.76	20.50	19.44	17.20	14.15	4.89	4.63	1.98	3.17	0.66	2.12	1.32	0.66	4.50	100.00
e	17.32	9.45	9.45	22.83	9.45	2.36	0.79	5.51	1.57	12.60	-	-	3.94	4.72	100.00
ale	-	17.65	17.65	8.82	17.65	-	5.88	5.88	-	2.94	5.88	5.88	-	11.76	100.00
al	13.66	11.18	11.18	19.88	11.18	1.86	1.86	5.59	1.24	10.56	1.24	1.24	3.11	6.21	100.00
e	35.46	12.77	5.67	3.55	2.84	5.67	2.84	5.67	4.96	3.55	1.42	1.42	4.96	9.22	100.00
ale	34.21	2.63	2.63	2.63	-	34.21	5.26	2.63	-	5.26	2.63	2.63	-	5.26	100.00
al	35.20	10.61	5.03	3.35	2.23	11.73	3.35	5.03	3.91	3.91	1.68	1.68	3.91	8.38	100.00
e	19.65	15.61	14.16	6.36	7.80	9.25	2.31	3.76	4.91	1.16	2.60	2.60	3.47	6.36	100.00
ale	2.27	15.91	15.91	2.27	9.09	9.09	9.09	4.55	-	-	9.09	9.09	2.27	11.36	100.00
al	17.69	15.64	14.36	5.90	7.95	9.23	3.08	3.85	4.36	1.03	3.33	3.33	3.33	6.92	100.00
e	38.12	9.94	8.29	3.87	5.52	3.87	2.76	5.52	3.87	4.42	3.87	2.76	0.55	6.63	100.00
ale	-	14.29	11.43	5.71	8.57	2.86	8.57	17.14	-	2.86	14.29	14.29	-	-	100.00
al	31.94	10.65	8.80	4.17	6.02	3.70	3.70	7.41	3.24	4.17	5.56	4.63	0.46	5.56	100.00
e	25.54	11.26	9.09	5.19	4.33	5.63	3.03	4.76	3.46	7.79	3.90	3.46	2.16	10.39	100.00
ale	5.71	17.14	11.43	-	11.43	2.86	20.00	5.71	-	8.57	2.86	2.86	5.71	5.71	100.00
al	22.93	12.03	9.40	4.51	5.26	5.26	5.26	4.89	3.01	7.89	3.76	3.38	2.63	9.77	100.00
e	17.64	15.61	13.81	11.55	9.17	5.63	3.37	3.66	3.71	3.13	2.44	1.92	2.03	6.33	100.00
ale	6.53	15.92	14.69	5.31	11.84	8.98	8.16	5.71	0.41	3.67	5.71	5.71	1.22	6.12	100.00
al	16.26	15.65	13.92	10.77	9.50	6.05	3.96	3.91	3.30	3.20	2.85	2.39	1.93	6.30	100.00

alculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The category of other social causes responsible for houselessness in the city includes the factors like having no friends 1.63 percent, over-crowding 1.22 percent, substance abuse 0.81 percent, extortion of house and house damage/displaced 0.76 percent each, parents' illness/death 0.25 percent, house fire 0.20 percent, step parents and no demand of skills 0.15 percent, no interest to live in house and foreclosure 0.10 percent, indefinite timing of work, parents remarriage and parents being run away 0.05 percent each.

The data given in Table 6.20 reveals that the volume of female houselessness is more ordained by the social causes of having no relatives, social persecution stigmatisation, abandoned by the family, domestic violence, widowed/divorced, and family breakdown in comparison to the male houselessness in the city.

The instability as a cause of houselessness occupied first place in terms of percentage in four zones i.e. Zones 3, 4, 5 and 6, whereas in Zone 1 and Zone 2, the first percental position is maintained by no family no proof of ID respectively. The houselessness in Zone 1 is significantly decided by the factors like having no family, no siblings, no proof of ID and no relatives whereas instability accounted only 4.76 percent. The causes of instability, no family, no siblings, no proof of ID, and no relatives and parents houselessness resulted in 10 to 20 percent houselessness in Zone 2. An aggregate percentage share of causes namely instability, no family and social persecution stigmatisation in Zone 3 and instability, no family and no siblings in Zone 4 is observed to be 57.54 and 47.69 percent respectively.

There are only two causes of houselessness i.e. instability and no family which have recorded more than ten percent in all the zones, whereas the combined percentage share of these two causes is observed as high as 42.59 percent in Zone 5 and 35.23 percent in Zone 6.

Another important inference that may be drawn from the data given in Table 6.20 is that all the social causes of houselessness listed in the table have been inducing the problem of houselessness in all the zones of the city, barring the orphanage which contributed less than one percent houseless persons only in Zone 1 (0.66 percent) and Zone 5 (0.46 percent). The three social causes viz., instability, runaway and orphan are least concerned with the female houselessness in comparison to males.

On the contrary, the female houselessness is significantly stimulated by the no family, no siblings, no relatives, widowed/divorced family breakdown among the social causes of houselessness.

6.4.1. b. Economic causes

Table 6.21 comprises percental distribution of data about the economic causes of houselessness. This table represents that high rent of housing & mortgage and low income & poverty are the principal detrimental factors of houselessness which constituted more than half (56.63 percent) of the houseless population in the city. The economic causes which produced houselessness more than five percent but less than ten percent in the city are remittances, to support the family, having moved to Kanpur city, unemployment and high price level which altogether contributed 37.89 percent proportion of houselessness.

However, the attraction to glamour of the city and loss of jobs resulted in 3.03 and 1.40 percent houseless persons in the study unit respectively. Other economic causes of houselessness having 1.05 percent share incorporate the substandard housings, security purpose, no house/land, no income, house sold, no room for single person, new comer for work, land lord getting the house vacated, no savings and more expenditure (look Box 6.3).

Box 6.3: Economic Causes of Houselessness Expressed by Houseless Population

1. "The house was sold owing to my debts. My son has already become a saint and now I am rendering alone as houseless. So, there should be the facility of canteen and availability of health and medical facilities for people like us" (Tilak Chandra: 42, Unnao).
2. "My own brother-in-law sold my house because he had the registration papers of the house and I, thus, became houseless" (Dayaram: 67, Kanpur Nagar).
3. "Our house was haunted by some mysterious powers which took the lives of my three family members. Therefore, I sold that house and residing on the footpaths since then" (Satish Gupta: 45, Kanpur Nagar).
4. "I became houseless because Elgin cotton mill was closed down" (Munna: 45, Ballia).
5. "There is no fixed timing for opening and closing of shops where I work as casual worker, that is why house owners do not want to give us room on rent" (Munne Lal: 50, Pratapgarh).

Source: Based on primary survey by the researcher.

Percent Distribution of Economic Causes of Houselessness in Kanpur City

Male/ Female	Economic causes of houselessness												Total
	High rent	Low income	Mortgage	Poverty	Remittances	To support family	Moved to Kanpur city	Unemployment	High price level	Attraction to glamour of city	Loss of job	Others	
Male	16.95	16.10	16.47	9.61	10.50	7.64	8.16	7.49	3.15	2.97	0.78	0.19	100.00
Female	18.29	18.29	18.29	17.07	3.66	6.10	4.88	10.98	-	-	1.22	1.22	100.00
Total	16.99	16.16	16.52	9.83	10.30	7.60	8.06	7.60	3.06	2.88	0.79	0.22	100.00
Male	16.94	16.53	12.30	14.72	8.27	12.10	5.65	4.03	6.45	1.41	0.81	0.81	100.00
Female	17.65	35.29	11.76	11.76	-	5.88	5.88	5.88	-	-	5.88	-	100.00
Total	16.96	17.15	12.28	14.62	7.99	11.89	5.65	4.09	6.24	1.36	0.97	0.78	100.00
Male	16.97	13.54	6.67	13.74	10.71	10.51	6.06	3.84	7.88	4.65	2.63	2.83	100.00
Female	6.94	2.78	4.17	26.39	1.39	6.94	20.83	2.78	27.78	-	-	-	100.00
Total	15.70	12.17	6.35	15.34	9.52	10.05	7.94	3.70	10.41	4.06	2.29	2.47	100.00
Male	17.60	19.62	9.24	10.53	9.52	6.64	5.34	4.62	9.24	2.60	3.61	1.44	100.00
Female	13.64	9.09	9.09	27.27	-	9.09	9.09	-	18.18	-	-	4.55	100.00
Total	17.48	19.30	9.23	11.05	9.23	6.71	5.45	4.48	9.51	2.52	3.50	1.54	100.00
Male	15.17	16.35	7.07	11.05	11.63	8.10	6.19	9.57	7.51	4.57	0.88	1.91	100.00
Female	11.76	17.65	11.76	15.69	1.96	11.76	3.92	7.84	11.76	-	5.88	-	100.00
Total	14.93	16.44	7.40	11.37	10.96	8.36	6.03	9.45	7.81	4.25	1.23	1.78	100.00
Male	15.24	15.08	8.25	14.92	8.73	9.05	5.40	7.30	8.57	3.49	1.59	2.38	100.00
Female	15.22	15.22	6.52	23.91	4.35	10.87	8.70	2.17	13.04	-	-	-	100.00
Total	15.24	15.09	8.14	15.53	8.43	9.17	5.62	6.95	8.88	3.25	1.48	2.22	100.00
Male	16.63	16.26	12.34	11.28	10.14	8.37	6.87	6.75	5.71	3.18	1.39	1.07	100.00
Female	13.45	14.14	10.69	20.69	2.41	8.28	9.66	5.86	12.41	-	1.72	0.69	100.00
Total	16.47	16.16	12.26	11.74	9.77	8.36	7.01	6.71	6.04	3.03	1.40	1.05	100.00

e: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Table 6.21 unfolds the fact that the economic causes of houselessness which determine substantially greater ratio of female houselessness than the male houselessness are poverty (20.69 percent), having moved to Kanpur city (9.66 percent), and high price level (12.41 percent), while all other remaining causes of houselessness germinated larger proportion of male houselessness in comparison to the female houselessness in the city.

The ratio of high rent of housing causing the houselessness ranges from 14 to 17 percent in all the zones of the city. The low income caused highest percentage of houselessness in Zone 4 (19.30 percent) and least in Zone 3 (12.17 percent). The maximum and minimum range of mortgage for houselessness varies from 16.52 percent in Zone 1 to 6.35 percent in Zone 3. The poverty and remittances contributed their greatest share in Zone 6 (15.53 percent) and Zone 5 (10.96 percent) and least share in Zone 1 (9.83 percent) and Zone 6 (8.43 percent) respectively.

Notwithstanding, the unemployment and high price level among the economic causes also have considerable effect on houselessness and they recorded even above five percent share in few selected zones like unemployment in Zone 1 (7.60 percent), Zone 5 (9.45 percent) and Zone 6 (6.95 percent), and high price level in Zone 2 (6.24 percent), Zone 4 (9.51 percent), Zone 5 (7.81 percent), and Zone 6 (8.88 percent). However, attraction to glamour of the city, loss of job and other economic causes of houselessness do not ensue more than five percent houselessness in any zone of the city.

6.4.1. c. Biological causes

The percent distribution of data regarding biological causes of houselessness has been provided in the Table 6.22. This table discloses the fact that among the proportion of houselessness caused by the biological causes, more than half (59.27 percent) is the outcome of poor health, because people with poor health can neither get daily work nor have capacity to do hard work which make it unable for them to retain in the shelter and force them to come down on the streets as houseless.

Second most important biological cause of houselessness is the mental illness which contributed more than one-fourth proportion (27.05 percent) of houseless population, followed by physical disability (6.69 percent), depression (5.17 percent), old age (0.91 percent), accidents (0.61 percent) and hospital referrals (0.30 percent). More than eight-fifth male as well as female houselessness is aggravated by the poor health and mental illness. Male houselessness is found to have occurred under all the biological factors listed in the table but

the female houselessness is caused only by four causes namely poor health, mental illness, physical disability and depression and no single female has been witnessed houseless due to old age, accidents and hospital referrals.

Table 6.22: Percent Distribution of Biological Causes of Houselessness in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/ Female	Biological causes of houselessness							Total
		Poor health	Mental illness	Physical disability	Depression	Oldness	Accidents	Hospital referrals	
Zone 1	Male	64.29	33.93	-	-	0.89	0.89	-	100.00
	Female	33.33	66.67	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	61.29	37.10	-	-	0.81	0.81	-	100.00
Zone 2	Male	35.00	45.00	15.00	5.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	-	50.00	50.00	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	29.17	45.83	20.83	4.17	-	-	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	81.48	7.41	11.11	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	50.00	50.00	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	79.31	10.34	10.34	-	-	-	-	100.00
Zone 4	Male	66.13	8.06	6.45	17.74	1.61	-	-	100.00
	Female	40.00	30.00	10.00	20.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	62.50	11.11	6.94	18.06	1.39	-	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	41.67	41.67	8.33	4.17	4.17	-	-	100.00
	Female	33.33	66.67	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	40.00	46.67	6.67	3.33	3.33	-	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	64.10	10.26	17.95	2.56	-	2.56	2.56	100.00
	Female	63.64	27.27	-	9.09	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	64.00	14.00	14.00	4.00	-	2.00	2.00	100.00
Total	Male	62.32	23.94	6.69	4.93	1.06	0.70	0.35	100.00
	Female	40.00	46.67	6.67	6.67	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	59.27	27.05	6.69	5.17	0.91	0.61	0.30	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey carried out by the researcher.

Further examination of the Table 6.22 demonstrates that poor health engenders more than sixty percent houselessness in all the zones, excluding Zone 2 and Zone 5. The mental illness causes houselessness more than one-third only in three zones of the city viz., Zones 1, 2 and 5. The zone-wise sum of the ratio of houselessness caused by poor health and mental illness is registered 98.39 percent (Zone 1), 75.00 percent (Zone 2), 89.65 percent (Zone 3), 73.61 percent (Zone 4), 86.67 percent (Zone 5), and 78.00 percent (Zone 6). It means that all other remaining biological causes combinedly resulted remained percent values of houselessness in the all the zones of the city.

6.4.1. d. Various causes of houselessness

The zone wise percentage distribution of data about the various socio-economic causes of houselessness in the Kanpur city has been inserted in the Table 6.23. It would be seen from this table that more than one-fifth (23.53 percent) of the houselessness is the outcome of only two causes, namely high rent of housing and low income of the people in the city.

In addition to it, nearly one-fourth (24.35 percent) proportion of houseless population is the direct upshot of three factors i.e. mortgage (8.84 percent), poverty (8.47 percent), and remittances (7.04 percent), subsequently followed by those who have become houseless to support the family (6.03 percent), by having moved to Kanpur city (5.05 percent), due to unemployment (4.84 percent), high price level (4.35 percent), instability (3.86 percent), because of having no family (3.71 percent), no siblings (3.30 percent), no proof of ID (2.56 percent), poor health (2.35 percent), no relatives (2.26 percent), having attracted to the glamour of the city (2.18 percent), due to social persecution stigmatisation (1.44 percent), mental illness (1.07 percent), loss of job (1.01 percent), and others (8.10 percent).

The socio-economic causes of houselessness incorporated in the category of others in the Table 6.23 are being widowed/divorced 0.95 percent, abandoned by the family 0.93 percent, runaway 0.78 percent, parents' houselessness 0.76 percent, domestic violence 0.68 percent, family breakdown 0.57 percent, orphan 0.46 percent, no friends 0.39 percent, physical disability 0.27 percent, depression 0.21 percent, substance abuse, substandard housing and natural calamities 0.19 percent each, extortion of house and house damage & displaced 0.18 percent each, security purpose 0.16 percent, no house/land 0.10 percent, no income 0.08 percent, parents' illness/death, house sold and no room for single person 0.06 percent each, house fire and new comer for work 0.05 percent each, no demand of skills, step parents, oldness and landlord getting the house vacated 0.04 percent each, foreclosure, accidents and no interest to live in house 0.02 percent each, hospital referrals, no saving, indefinite time of work, parents remarriage, parents runaway and more expenditure 0.01 percent each.

Further analysis of the Table 6.23 shows that the causes for greater proportion of female houselessness are predominated by the poverty, high price level, no family, no siblings, poor health, no relatives, social persecution stigmatisation, mental illness and others in comparison to male houselessness while reverse condition is witnessed in other remaining causes of houselessness.

3: Percent Distribution of Various Socio-Economic Causes of Houselessness in Kanpur City

Causes of houselessness	Zone 1			Zone 2			Zone 3		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Age	13.03	9.8	12.89	13.04	5.45	12.45	12.48	4.46	11.34
Income	12.37	9.8	12.26	12.73	10.91	12.59	9.96	1.79	8.79
Education	12.66	9.8	12.54	9.47	3.64	9.01	4.9	2.68	4.59
Marital status	7.38	9.15	7.46	11.34	3.64	10.73	10.1	16.96	11.08
Occupations	8.07	1.96	7.81	6.37	-	5.87	7.88	0.89	6.88
Support the family	5.87	3.27	5.76	9.32	1.82	8.73	7.73	4.46	7.26
Distance from Kanpur city	6.27	2.61	6.12	4.35	1.82	4.15	4.46	13.39	5.73
Employment	5.76	5.88	5.76	3.11	1.82	3.00	2.82	1.79	2.68
Expense level	2.42	-	2.32	4.97	-	4.58	5.79	17.86	7.52
Unemployment	1.03	-	0.98	3.42	-	3.15	7.43	11.61	8.03
Unemployment	4.02	9.15	4.23	1.86	10.91	2.58	2.67	0.89	2.42
Unemployment	3.79	9.15	4.02	1.86	10.91	2.58	1.19	0.89	1.15
Loss of ID	3.53	3.92	3.55	4.5	5.45	4.58	0.74	0.89	0.76
Health	2.05	2.61	2.08	1.09	-	1.00	3.27	0.89	2.93
Unemployment	2.71	7.84	2.92	1.86	10.91	2.58	0.59	-	0.51
Distance to glamour of city	2.28	-	2.19	1.09	-	1.00	3.42	-	2.93
Persecution stigmatization	0.97	1.96	1.01	0.47	-	0.43	1.19	11.61	2.68
Unemployment	1.08	5.23	1.26	1.4	3.64	1.57	0.3	0.89	0.38
Unemployment	0.6	0.65	0.6	0.62	1.82	0.72	1.93	-	1.66
Unemployment	4.1	7.19	4.23	7.14	27.27	8.73	11.14	8.04	10.7
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Contd.....

Homelessness	Zone 4			Zone 5			Zone 6			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
	11.07	3.95	10.61	11.65	6.52	11.17	10.65	7.61	10.37	12.27	6.72	11.88
	12.34	2.63	11.71	12.56	9.78	12.3	10.54	7.61	10.27	11.99	7.07	11.65
	5.81	2.63		5.43	6.52	5.53	5.77	3.26	5.54	9.1	5.34	8.84
	6.62	7.89	5.6	8.48	8.7	8.5	10.43	11.96	10.57	8.32	10.34	8.47
	5.99	-	5.6	8.94	1.09	8.2	6.1	2.17	5.74	7.48	1.21	7.04
Family	4.17	2.63	4.07	6.22	6.52	6.25	6.33	5.43	6.24	6.17	4.14	6.03
City	3.36	2.63	3.31	4.75	2.17	4.51	3.77	4.35	3.83	5.07	4.83	5.05
	2.9	-	2.72	7.35	4.35	7.07	5.11	1.09	4.73	4.98	2.93	4.84
	5.81	5.26	5.77	5.77	6.52	5.84	5.99	6.52	6.04	4.21	6.21	4.35
	6.17	1.32	5.86	7.81	-	7.07	6.55	2.17	6.14	3.94	2.76	3.86
	4.9	9.21	5.18	2.04	5.43	2.36	2.89	6.52	3.22	3.49	6.72	3.71
	4.45	9.21	4.75	1.7	4.35	1.95	2.33	4.35	2.52	3.09	6.21	3.3
	2	1.32	1.95	0.79	2.17	0.92	1.33	-	1.21	2.58	2.24	2.56
	3.72	5.26	3.82	1.13	2.17	1.23	2.77	7.61	3.22	2.3	3.1	2.35
	2.45	5.26	2.63	1.13	3.26	1.33	1.11	4.35	1.41	2.05	5.00	2.26
Out of city	1.63	-	1.53	3.51	-	3.18	2.44	-	2.22	2.35	-	2.18
	2.9	5.26	3.06	0.79	1.09	0.82	1.44	1.09	1.41	1.26	3.79	1.44
	0.45	3.95	0.68	1.13	4.35	1.43	0.44	3.26	0.7	0.88	3.62	1.07
	2.27	-	2.12	0.68	3.26	0.92	1.11	-	1.01	1.02	0.86	1.01
	10.98	31.58	12.31	8.14	21.74	9.43	12.87	20.65	13.6	7.44	16.9	8.1
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The role of these causes of houselessness is analysed in Table 6.23, which shows that each of them is comprised of more than 5% share individually among all the factors of houselessness. It exhibits that more than seventy percent (70.60 percent) houseless population has been living without roof over their head in Zone 1 mainly due to high rent of housing, low income, mortgage, poverty, remittances, to support the family, having moved to Kanpur city and unemployment. About three-fifth (59.38 percent) houseless persons in Zone 2 are forced by high rent of housing, low income, mortgage, poverty remittances and to support the family to render as shelterless.

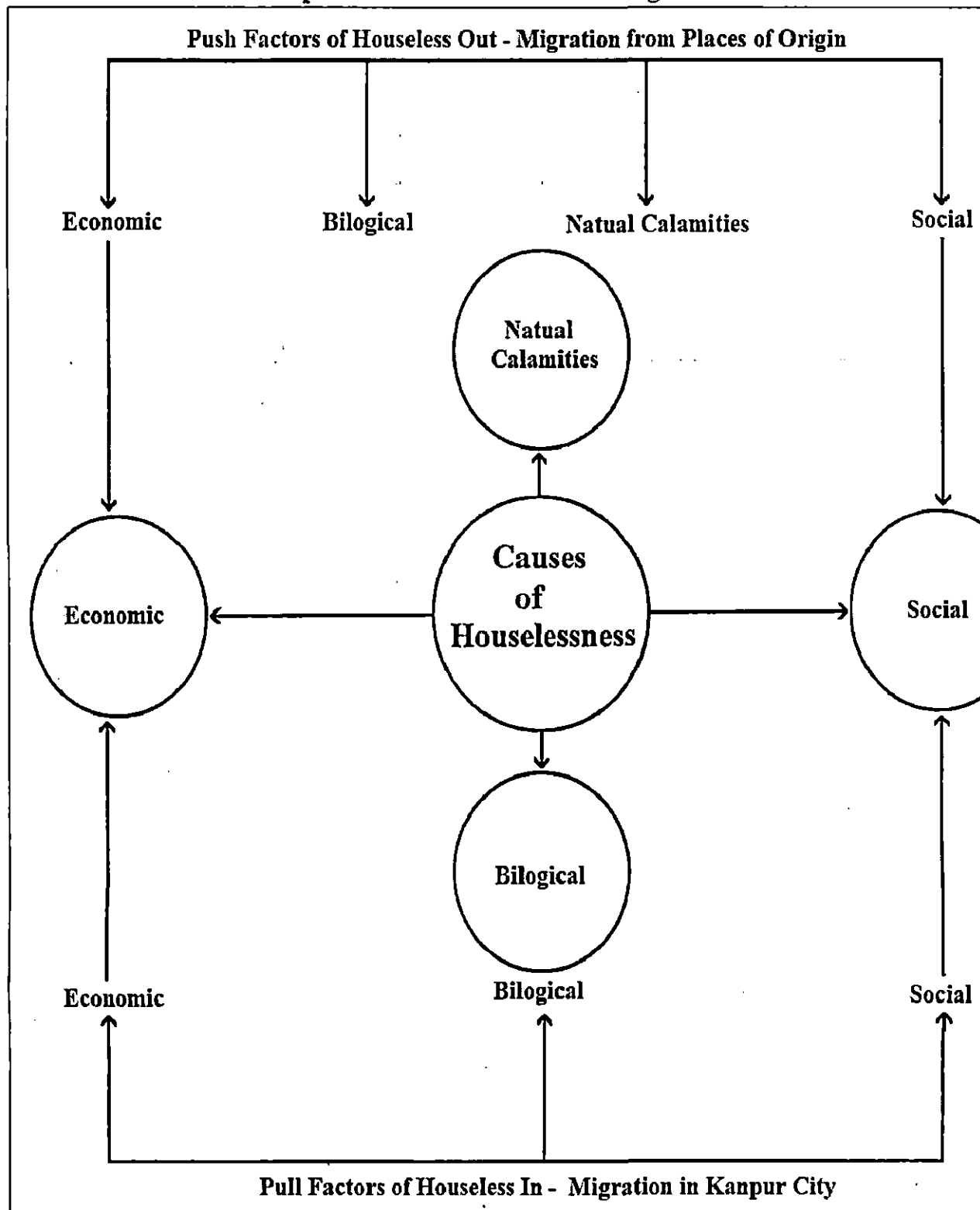
The high rent of housing, low income, poverty, remittances, having to support the family, having moved to Kanpur city, high price level and instability induced two-third houseless population in Zone 3. Only half of the houseless population in Zone 4 is predominated by the causes of houselessness namely high rent of housing, low income, poverty, remittances, high price level, instability and no family, whereas more than seventy percent (71.93 percent) houselessness in Zone 5 is loomed by the high rent of housing, low income, mortgage, poverty, remittances, to support the family, unemployment, high price level and instability of houseless people.

At last, the causes of houselessness i.e. high rent of housing, low income, mortgage, poverty, remittance, to support the family, high price level and instability have evoked more than three-fifth (60.91 percent) of the houselessness in Zone 6.

Therefore, it is very clearly revealed from the Table 6.23 that there are only six or seven main causes of houselessness, which are particularly economic in nature rather than social, which rendered more than half to two-third people to the state of houselessness, while other remaining causes are also effective to render the population as houseless in the Kanpur city but not upto the significant proportion.

The Illustration 6.2 shows that the economic variables are the major causal crusades of the problem of houselessness, in terms of economic pushing factors (61.98 percent) of out-migration of houseless population from their places of origin, economic pulling factors (72.11 percent) of in-migration of houseless population in Kanpur city and economic causes of houselessness (95.33 percent) operating in the city which force the people to live on the footpaths in the open sky.

Illustration 6.2: Relationship of Push and Pull Factors of Migration and Causes of Houselessness



Source: Based on the simplification of primary data carried out by the researcher.

While, the social variables are also playing a vital role in the form of pushing factors (27.08 percent) of out-migration of houseless population from their places of origin and as causes of houselessness (23.73 percent) functioning in the city which results the houselessness whereas social pulling factors (2.83 percent) of in-migration of houseless population in the city witnessed a very negligible proportion.

The biological determinates in terms of biological pushing factors (9.90 percent) of out-migration of houseless population, biological pulling factors (1.85 percent) of in-migration of houseless population and biological causes of houselessness (3.97 percent) have been experienced modest causal agents of houselessness, while, natural calamities have been observed extremely very low in proportion and limited only in two categories i.e. pushing factors (1.04 percent) of out-migration of houseless population and causes of houselessness (0.19 percent).

6.5. Places of living and sleeping for houseless population

Table 6.24 gives the percent distribution of data about the places of living and sleeping for the houseless population in Kanpur city. An examination of the data given in Table 6.24 depicts that about one-third houseless population is found to be living/sleeping on the pavements. It was evident during the survey that the roads and the pavements are very wide in both the commercial as well as the residential areas of Kanpur city that provide better platforms for the houseless population to live and sleep.

The ledges of shops or houses are also better options for the houseless people particularly in the market areas to sleep in the night and accounted 22.42 percent, but in the residential area, houseless people got disturbed by the local people. Moreover, 16.04 percent houseless people also used to live in the streets of residential colonies where they got enough space in different wards of the city, followed by those living/sleeping at road dividers (5.86 percent), night shelters (4.50 percent), parks (3.15 percent), courtyard of worship places (1.97 percent), market corridors (the most suitable place for the houseless people because these protect them from scorching sun light, storms, rain fall, severe winter, etc.) 1.62 percent, under the bridges (1.53 percent), public grounds (0.74 percent) and others (6.29 percent).

There are also people who have no fix place to live and sleep because they used to sleep 'anywhere' after sunset at night like gypsies, and they comprised 2.58 percent of the houseless population in the city (see Plates 6.1 to 6.12).

Table 6.24: Percent Distribution of Places of Living and Sleeping for Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Places of living and sleeping for houseless population												Total
		Pavements	On ledges of shops or house	Streets	Road dividers	Night shelter	Parks	Any where	Courtyard of worship places	Market corridors	Under bridges	Public grounds	Others	
Zone 1	Male	28.22	27.51	15.94	2.74	6.70	3.96	3.76	1.22	2.64	1.73	-	5.58	100.00
	Female	24.00	16.00	20.00	2.00	-	12.00	14.00	6.00	4.00	-	-	2.00	100.00
	Total	28.02	26.96	16.14	2.71	6.38	4.35	4.25	1.45	2.71	1.64	-	5.41	100.00
Zone 2	Male	48.12	15.79	14.29	6.02	-	1.50	6.02	-	-	8.27	-	-	100.00
	Female	27.27	9.09	27.27	9.09	-	4.55	13.64	4.55	-	4.55	-	-	100.00
	Total	45.16	14.84	16.13	6.45	-	1.94	7.10	0.65	-	7.74	-	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	39.16	18.07	9.64	3.61	3.01	0.60	1.20	-	1.81	1.20	1.81	19.88	100.00
	Female	14.29	9.52	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	57.14	19.05	100.00
	Total	36.36	17.11	8.56	3.21	2.67	0.53	1.07	-	1.60	1.07	8.02	19.79	100.00
Zone 4	Male	27.04	27.99	24.84	8.18	0.31	0.31	0.31	5.66	0.31	-	-	5.03	100.00
	Female	26.32	26.32	5.26	15.79	-	-	-	15.79	-	-	5.26	5.26	100.00
	Total	27.00	27.89	23.74	8.61	0.30	0.30	0.30	6.23	0.30	-	0.30	5.04	100.00
Zone 5	Male	35.98	18.83	15.06	8.79	8.79	0.84	0.42	0.42	0.84	1.26	0.42	8.37	100.00
	Female	41.67	8.33	25.00	12.50	-	-	-	4.17	-	4.17	-	4.17	100.00
	Total	36.50	17.87	15.97	9.13	7.98	0.76	0.38	0.76	0.76	1.52	0.38	7.98	100.00
Zone 6	Male	46.07	12.86	12.86	11.43	3.57	6.07	-	2.14	0.71	-	-	4.29	100.00
	Female	58.06	6.45	3.23	16.13	-	9.68	-	-	3.23	-	-	3.23	100.00
	Total	47.27	12.22	11.90	11.90	3.22	6.43	-	1.93	0.96	-	-	4.18	100.00
Total	Male	33.38	23.20	16.17	5.66	4.86	2.92	2.31	1.74	1.60	1.56	0.19	6.41	100.00
	Female	32.34	12.57	14.37	8.38	-	5.99	5.99	4.79	1.80	1.20	7.78	4.79	100.00
	Total	33.30	22.42	16.04	5.86	4.50	3.15	2.58	1.97	1.62	1.53	0.74	6.29	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Plates: Places of Living/Sleeping for Houseless Population in Kanpur City



6.1: Public Ground



6.2: Pavement



6.3: Street of Residential Colony



6.4: Drainage Line



6.5: Bus Stand



6.6: Near Railway Station

The category of others include rickshaw garages 0.87 percent, under staircases and banks/ATMs 0.66 percent each, four-ways points 0.61 percent, at the working places 0.57 percent, drainage pipes 0.48 percent, flyovers, railway stations, abandoned buildings 0.44 percent each, over bridges 0.35 percent, outside of hotel being hotelkeeper 0.31 percent, bus stands 0.22 percent, courtyard of cinema halls and hospitals 0.13 percent each.

Table 6.24 reveals that the highest proportion of houseless population living on the pavements is recorded in Zone 6 i.e. 47.27 percent, with maximum figure accounted by males (48.12 percent) in Zone 2 and for females (58.06 percent) in Zone 6. Besides this, each zone of the city has observed more than one-fourth share of houseless population who lives/sleeps on pavements. The ratio of houseless males exceeds the houseless females in all the zones barring Zone of 5 and Zone 6 wherein ratio of houseless females oversteps the males. The maximum **and minimum range of ratio of houseless persons who were living on the ledges of houses/shops** varies from 27.89 percent in Zone 4 to the 12.22 percent in Zone 6 respectively. But the share of houseless males living on the ledges of houses/shops surmounted the females in all the zones of the city. The largest houseless population residing in the streets is observed in Zone 4 viz. 23.74 percent. Zone 2 and Zone 4 also registered the utmost houseless females (27.27 percent) and houseless males (24.84 percent) who used to live and sleep in the streets. The share of houseless people who were sleeping on the road divider embankments in the city is recorded in large number only in Zone 6 (11.90 percent), while all other zones have houseless persons sleeping on the road divider embankments within ten percent, with minimum value being accounted by Zone 1 (2.71 percent). Among the houseless persons living/sleeping on the road divider embankments, the maximum percental values for both males and females are also observed in Zone 6 i.e. 11.43 and 16.13 percent respectively. The houseless population living in the night shelters is ascertained above five percent only in Zone 1 (6.38 percent) and Zone 5 (7.98 percent), with no female being recorded in any night shelter due to no legislative order to stay for females and, therefore, it is totally dominated by the houseless males. Other listed places of living and sleeping which shared more than five percent houseless population are parks (6.43 percent) in Zone 6, anywhere (7.10 percent) in Zone 2, courtyards of worship places (6.23 percent) in Zone 4, and under bridges (7.74 percent) in Zone 2. The category of others also recorded more than five percent in all the zones except in Zone 6 which accounts 4.18 percent, the highest figures being identified in Zone 3 i.e. 19.79 percent, while Zone 2 recorded no houseless people in the category of others.

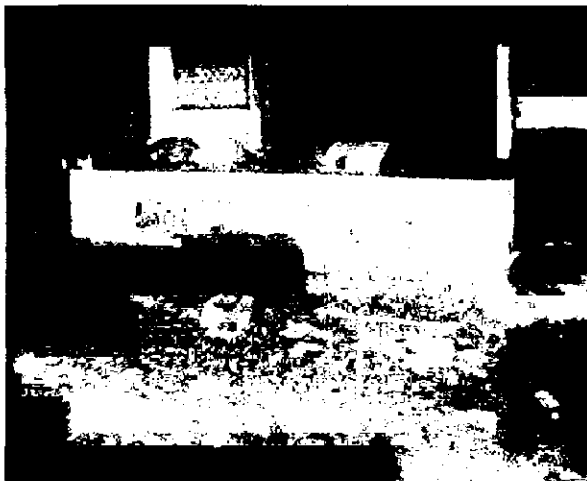
Plates: Places of Living/Sleeping for Houseless Population in Kanpur City



6.7: Courtyard of Worship Place



6.8: Market Corridor



6.9: Ledges of Shop/House



6.10: At Door of Night Shelter Home



6.11: Open Area of Night Shelter Home



6.12: Night Shelter Home

6.6. Frequency of living places shifted by houseless population

Data regarding the living places shifted by the houseless population in their whole life has been provided in Table 6.25. An analysis of the data indicates that the proportion of houseless people who have shifted/changed their place of residence two times recorded nearly one-third (33.38 percent) of the total houseless population in the city, while about one-fourth (24.28 percent) houseless persons witnessed one time shifting in their life. Moreover, more than one-fourth (26.15 percent) houseless people are observed to have shifted their place of residence for three times (17.77 percent) and four times (8.38 percent).

The houseless persons who have changed their places of living from five to more than ten times altogether accounted only 9.39 percent. The crucial section of houseless population who has never changed their place of residence all through their life registered only 1.95 percent whereas 4.84 percent houseless persons used to change their places of living everyday because they have no fixed place to live and sleep regularly due to mental illness, begging, cycle rickshaw pulling, etc.

A close scrutiny of Table 6.25 depicts that all the zones have recorded more than one-fifth share of houseless population who have shifted their place of residence two times, their highest percentage being observed in Zone 6 (46.08 percent), except in Zone 4 which noted a little less than one-fifth i.e. 19.21 percent. Nearly one-third houseless population is found to have observed only one time shift in the place of living in all the zones barring Zone 1 in which only 8.01 percent have changed their place of residence for once only. The ratio of the people who have shifted their residence for three times varies from the highest 20.77 percent in Zone 1 to the lowest 12.84 percent in Zone 3. More than ten percent houseless population in Zone 2 (11.50 percent) and Zone 4 (11.33 percent) are also found to have changed their place of residence for four times.

The houseless population of Zone 1 and Zone 2 is most dynamic in nature because they witnessed the life of daily roamers viz., 7.83 percent and 11.50 percent respectively. The maximum ratio of houseless persons who have never changed their place of living in their whole life can be observed in Zone 4 (3.45 percent).

Zones	Male/Female	Never	Daily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	More than 10	Total
Zone 1	Male	2.48	6.86	8.00	46.29	21.14	7.43	1.90	3.24	1.33	0.38	0.19	0.76	100.00
	Female	-	29.17	8.33	41.67	12.50	4.17	-	4.17	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	2.37	7.83	8.01	46.08	20.77	7.29	1.82	3.28	1.28	0.36	0.18	0.73	100.00
Zone 2	Male	-	9.09	38.38	18.18	14.14	12.12	3.03	2.02	2.02	-	-	1.01	100.00
	Female	-	28.57	-	50.00	7.14	7.14	7.14	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	-	11.50	33.63	22.12	13.27	11.50	3.54	1.77	1.77	-	-	0.88	100.00
Zone 3	Male	3.17	1.59	34.92	32.54	11.90	3.97	8.73	2.38	0.79	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	-	-	59.09	18.18	18.18	-	-	-	-	4.55	-	-	100.00
	Total	2.70	1.35	38.51	30.41	12.84	3.38	7.43	2.03	0.68	0.68	-	-	100.00
Zone 4	Male	3.14	3.66	31.94	18.85	17.80	10.47	5.24	5.76	1.05	-	1.57	0.52	100.00
	Female	8.33	8.33	8.33	25.00	8.33	25.00	-	16.67	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	3.45	3.94	30.54	19.21	17.24	11.33	4.93	6.40	0.99	-	1.48	0.49	100.00
Zone 5	Male	1.27	0.64	38.22	26.11	15.29	10.19	0.64	1.91	-	2.55	-	3.18	100.00
	Female	-	-	31.25	12.50	18.75	6.25	-	12.50	-	-	6.25	12.50	100.00
	Total	1.16	0.58	37.57	24.86	15.61	9.83	0.58	2.89	-	2.31	0.58	4.05	100.00
Zone 6	Male	0.57	-	37.50	30.68	15.91	8.52	-	0.57	-	3.41	1.70	1.14	100.00
	Female	-	-	18.18	13.64	36.36	13.64	9.09	-	-	9.09	-	-	100.00
	Total	0.51	-	35.35	28.79	18.18	9.09	1.01	0.51	-	4.04	1.52	1.01	100.00
Total	Male	2.04	4.32	24.41	33.99	17.74	8.40	2.75	2.90	0.94	0.94	0.55	1.02	100.00
	Female	0.91	10.91	22.73	26.36	18.18	8.18	2.73	4.55	-	2.73	0.91	1.82	100.00
	Total	1.95	4.84	24.28	33.38	17.77	8.38	2.75	3.03	0.87	1.08	0.58	1.08	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The fraction of houseless population which accounted above four percent in the categories of shifting of living places is as follows: 7.43 percent in Zone 3 and 4.93 percent in Zone 4 to have shifted five times, 6.40 percent in Zone 4 having shifted six times, 4.04 percent in Zone 6 having shifted eight times, and 4.05 percent in Zone 5 having shifted more than ten times. Houseless females experienced lesser number of shifts in their place of residence among the given categories in comparison with the houseless males in the city.

6.7. Status of houseless population who ever lived and never lived in house

Table 6.26 provides information about the percent distribution of houseless people who have lived in a house at any time in their life.

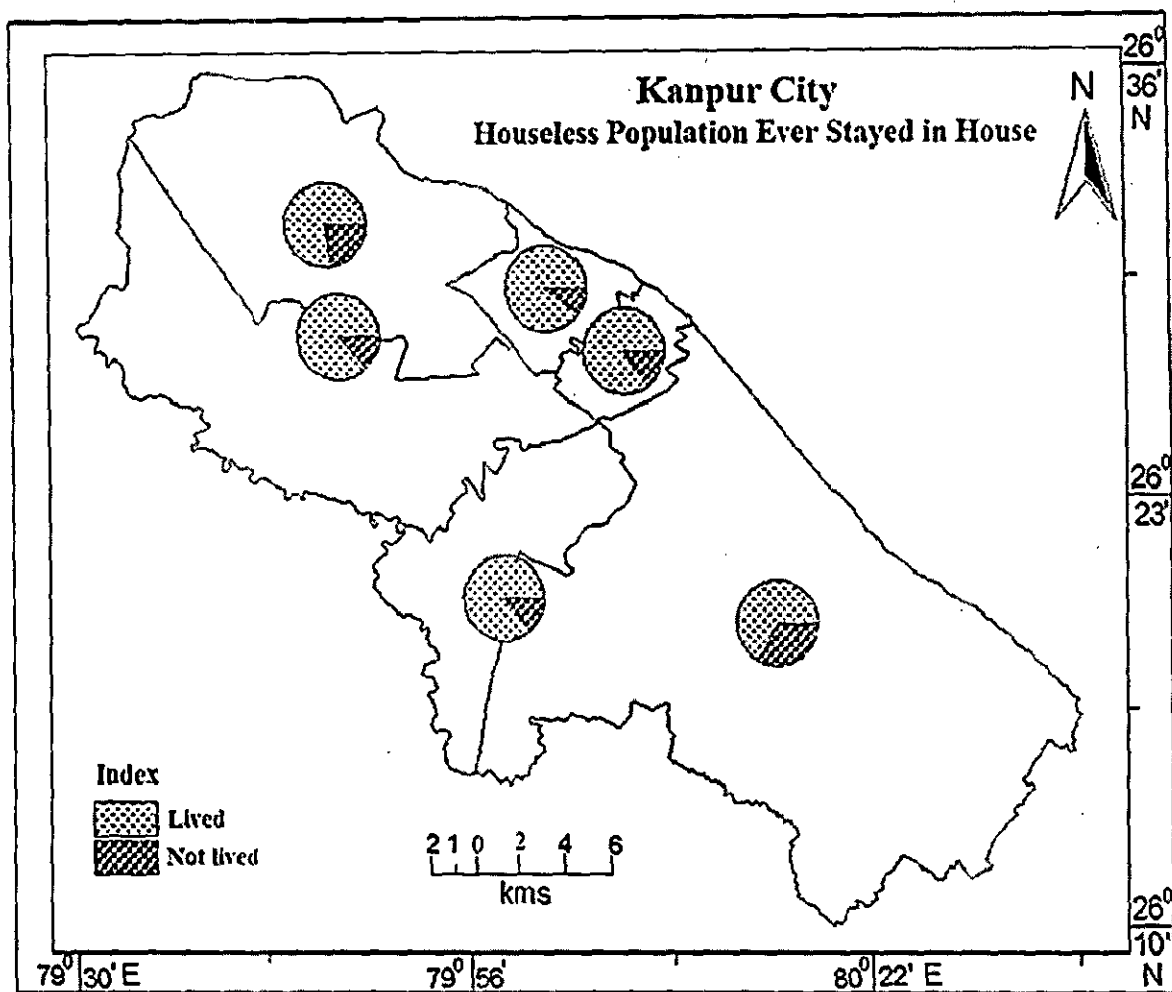
Table 6.26: Percent Distribution of Houseless Population Who Lived/Not-Lived in House in Whole Life

Zones	Male/Female	Houseless lived in house		
		Lived	Not-lived	Total
Zone 1	Male	86.60	13.40	100.00
	Female	44.00	56.00	100.00
	Total	84.68	15.32	100.00
Zone 2	Male	72.28	27.72	100.00
	Female	11.11	88.89	100.00
	Total	67.27	32.73	100.00
Zone 3	Male	85.71	14.29	100.00
	Female	86.36	13.64	100.00
	Total	85.81	14.19	100.00
Zone 4	Male	91.26	8.74	100.00
	Female	75.00	25.00	100.00
	Total	90.26	9.74	100.00
Zone 5	Male	87.90	12.10	100.00
	Female	75.00	25.00	100.00
	Total	86.71	13.29	100.00
Zone 6	Male	78.41	21.59	100.00
	Female	68.18	31.82	100.00
	Total	77.27	22.73	100.00
Total	Male	85.07	14.93	100.00
	Female	63.21	36.79	100.00
	Total	83.39	16.61	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

It would be seen from the Table 6.26 that more than four-fifth of the houseless population has lived in shelter once upon a time in life. The proportion of houseless males who have lived in house at any time in their life exceeded the houseless females. It means that a higher ratio of houseless females (36.79 percent) has never experienced the life in shelter than the houseless males (14.93 percent). The zone wise analysis refers to the fact that more

than three-fourth houseless population of each zone has lived in a house, barring Zone 2 wherein only two-third people have lived in the house. The houseless population of Zone 4 has enjoyed the life of shelter in maximum proportion as compared to other zones of the city (see Figure 6.6).



Source: Based on table 6.26.

Fig. 6.6

The maximal share of houseless males and females who have lived in the house are observed in Zone 4 (91.26 percent) and in Zone 3 (86.36 percent) while minimal share for houseless males (72.28 percent) and for females (11.11 percent) in Zone 2. Hence, the houseless population of Zone 2 has experienced higher ratio of houselessness (male 27.72%, female 88.89% and total 32.73%) in their life because they have never lived in a house, whereas the least percentage is observed in Zone 4 for males (8.74%) and in total (9.74%) and in Zone 3 for females (13.64%).

6.8. Frequency to live in the shelter after months and years

Table 6.27 presents zone wise percent distribution of the frequency of living in shelter after months and years by the houseless population. This table shows that majority of the houseless people is unable to access the shelter and, thus, forced to live as houseless, accounting 38.21 percent share of the total houseless population in the Kanpur city.

Among the houseless people who used to live in the shelter after either few months or few years, the highest proportion is registered by the people who have been getting the chances to live in the shelter within one month i.e. 21.92 percent, followed by those living in the shelter after 1 to 2 months (13.97 percent), 2 to 4 months (6.95 percent), 4 to 6 months (4.85 percent), 6 to 8 months (2.82 percent), 8 to 10 months (1.74 percent) and 10 to 12 months (1.30 percent), while remaining 8.25 share of houseless population is occupied by the those houseless people who got the opportunity to live in the shelter after few years as 6.73 percent houseless persons used to go to meet their families and relatives, who were living in the shelter, after 1 to 5 years and 1.52 percent persons dwelt after the 5 years.

Further examination of the Table 6.27 depicts that more than three-fourth (78.30 percent) ratio of houseless females has never been able to live in the shelter in comparison to houseless males (34.30 percent). More than half houseless population of Zone 6 was most deprived from living the life in the shelter, and the least proportion of such deprived population is observed in Zone 1 i.e. 28.37 percent. Moreover, hundred percent houseless females in Zone 2 have never lived in the shelter after becoming houseless, whereas the highest percentage of such males is registered in Zone 6. The least proportion of houseless males and females who never got chance to live in a house after becoming houseless is witnessed 25.89 percent (Zone 1) and 36.36 percent (Zone 3) respectively.

The greater share of the houseless population, among the population which got the chances to live in the shelter, is constituted by two categories namely less than one month and 1 to 2 months. The houseless persons who have been fortunate to get shelter within one month accounted their maximum and minimum shares in Zone 3 (37.16 percent) and Zone 6 (15.15 percent) respectively.

As can be seen from the Table 6.27, the proportion of houseless persons who lived in the shelter after 1 to 2 months is observed the highest (16.22 percent) in Zone 3 and the lowest (12.75 percent) in Zone 1.

Table 6.27: Zone Wise Percent Distribution of Frequency of Living in Shelter in Months and Years by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Frequency of living in shelter in months/years										Total
		Never	Less than 1 Month	1-2 Months	2-4 Months	4-6 Months	6-8 Months	8-10 Months	10-12 Months	1-5 years	Above 5 years	
Zone 1	Male	25.89	17.26	13.13	10.88	7.13	3.75	4.32	3.38	11.44	2.81	100.00
	Female	83.33	-	4.17	-	4.17	-	4.17	-	-	4.17	100.00
	Total	28.37	16.52	12.75	10.41	7.00	3.59	4.31	3.23	10.95	2.87	100.00
Zone 2	Male	40.78	26.21	15.53	9.71	2.91	-	-	-	4.85	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	46.02	23.89	14.16	8.85	2.65	-	-	-	4.42	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	32.54	33.33	19.05	0.79	5.56	2.38	-	-	5.56	0.79	100.00
	Female	36.36	59.09	-	-	-	4.55	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	33.11	37.16	16.22	0.68	4.73	2.70	-	-	4.73	0.68	100.00
Zone 4	Male	46.45	21.31	14.21	5.46	4.37	4.37	-	-	3.28	0.55	100.00
	Female	91.67	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8.33	-	100.00
	Total	49.23	20.00	13.33	5.13	4.10	4.10	-	-	3.59	0.51	100.00
Zone 5	Male	33.55	38.71	16.13	5.16	2.58	1.29	-	-	2.58	-	100.00
	Female	87.50	-	6.25	-	-	-	-	-	6.25	-	100.00
	Total	38.60	35.09	15.20	4.68	2.34	1.17	-	-	2.92	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	49.43	16.48	17.05	5.11	2.84	2.84	-	-	4.55	1.70	100.00
	Female	90.91	4.55	-	-	4.55	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	54.04	15.15	15.15	4.55	3.03	2.53	-	-	4.04	1.52	100.00
Total	Male	34.87	22.65	14.97	7.52	5.09	2.98	1.80	1.41	7.13	1.57	100.00
	Female	78.30	13.21	1.89	-	1.89	0.94	0.94	-	1.89	0.94	100.00
	Total	38.21	21.92	13.97	6.95	4.85	2.82	1.74	1.30	6.73	1.52	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Apart from this, it is Zone 1 which recorded above ten percent as well as the highest percentage of the houseless population who have moved to live in the shelter after 2 to 4 months (10.41 percent) and after 1 to 5 years (10.95 percent) in comparison with all other zones. If only that section of houseless population is analysed which comes to live in the shelter after years, i.e. 1 to 5 years and above 5 years, it is revealed that the people who used to live in the shelter after 1 to 5 years constitute larger share than those who got the chance to live in the shelter after 5 years in all the zones of the city. The maximum ratios of houseless persons (more than one percent) who got the chance to live in the shelter after 5 years are identified 2.87 percent in Zone 1 and 1.52 percent in Zone 6.

6.9. Duration of houselessness in years

The zone wise percent distribution of data on duration of houselessness in years experienced by the houseless population in Kanpur city has been listed in the Table 6.28. One notable point here is that there are various socio-economic causes of houselessness which were explained above in detail excluding the houselessness by birth.

Analysis of the Table 6.28 shows that the people who are houseless since their birth accounted significant proportion (14.44 percent) among the houseless people, who have the period of houselessness less than 5 years to more than 50 years, in the Kanpur city. The females who have been houseless since their birth exceed the males. The highest proportion of houseless population who has been houseless since birth is observed 25.66 percent in Zone 2, and recorded in descending order in Zones 6, 1, 4, 5 and 3 as 20.81, 14.39, 9.95, 9.83 and 8.78 percent respectively.

About one-fifth (20.39 percent) of the houseless people have been found living as houseless for less than 5 years, followed by those who have been houseless for 10 to 15 years (14.51 percent), 5 to 10 years (12.55 percent), 20 to 25 years (11.76 percent), 15 to 20 years (8.78 percent), 25 to 30 years (6.10 percent), 30 to 35 years (4.79 percent), 35 to 40 years (2.98 percent), 40 to 45 years (2.03 percent), 45 to 50 years (1.23 percent) and more than 50 years (0.44 percent). It reveals that the three-fourth proportion of houseless population ranges in the categories from less than 5 years upto 30 years excluding those who are houseless since birth and for above 30 years. The people who have lived as houseless for more than 30 years (i.e. from 30-35 to above 50 years) composed 11.47 percent.

Another important inference which may be drawn from the Table 6.28 is that the higher ratio of females experienced longer duration of houselessness than the males and vice versa.

Table 6.28: Zone Wise Percent Distribution of Duration of Houselessness in Years Experienced by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Duration of houselessness in years												Total
		Since Birth	Below 5	5-10	10-15	15-20	20-25	25-30	30-35	35-40	40-45	45-50	Above 50	
Zone 1	Male	12.95	25.14	14.45	12.57	9.76	9.57	3.75	5.07	3.00	2.06	0.94	0.75	100.00
	Female	47.83	8.70	8.70	4.35	4.35	4.35	4.35	13.04	-	-	4.35	-	100.00
	Total	14.39	24.46	14.21	12.23	9.53	9.35	3.78	5.40	2.88	1.98	1.08	0.72	100.00
Zone 2	Male	26.21	15.53	10.68	19.42	-	12.62	4.85	0.97	3.88	3.88	1.94	-	100.00
	Female	20.00	-	10.00	-	10.00	10.00	40.00	10.00	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	25.66	14.16	10.62	17.70	0.88	12.39	7.96	1.77	3.54	3.54	1.77	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	7.94	18.25	11.90	21.43	7.94	16.67	9.52	0.79	2.38	1.59	0.79	0.79	100.00
	Female	13.64	4.55	9.09	4.55	9.09	54.55	-	-	4.55	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	8.78	16.22	11.49	18.92	8.11	22.30	8.11	0.68	2.70	1.35	0.68	0.68	100.00
Zone 4	Male	10.56	14.44	8.89	15.56	12.78	11.67	10.00	5.00	6.11	2.78	1.67	0.56	100.00
	Female	-	27.27	27.27	-	-	18.18	18.18	-	9.09	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	9.95	15.18	9.95	14.66	12.04	12.04	10.47	4.71	6.28	2.62	1.57	0.52	100.00
Zone 5	Male	8.92	17.83	15.29	18.47	12.10	8.92	7.01	7.01	1.27	1.91	1.27	-	100.00
	Female	18.75	18.75	18.75	12.50	12.50	12.50	-	6.25	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	9.83	17.92	15.61	17.92	12.14	9.25	6.36	6.94	1.16	1.73	1.16	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	20.57	24.57	10.86	13.14	5.71	10.86	5.71	4.57	0.57	1.71	1.71	-	100.00
	Female	22.73	9.09	-	9.09	4.55	22.73	4.55	18.18	9.09	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	20.81	22.84	9.64	12.69	5.58	12.18	5.58	6.09	1.52	1.52	1.52	-	100.00
Total	Male	13.74	21.19	12.72	15.23	8.95	10.91	5.97	4.47	2.90	2.20	1.26	0.47	100.00
	Female	23.08	10.58	10.58	5.77	6.73	22.12	7.69	8.65	3.85	-	0.96	-	100.00
	Total	14.44	20.39	12.55	14.51	8.78	11.76	6.10	4.79	2.98	2.03	1.23	0.44	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The categories which enumerated more than 10 percent houseless population ranged from the since birth to the 25 to 30 years in continuation at least in any one of the zones of the Kanpur city. The maximum share of houseless people whose duration of houselessness is just less than 5 years is observed in Zone 1 (24.46 percent), while the persons who have been living as houseless from 5 to 10 years and 10 to 15 years registered largest proportion in Zone 5 (15.61 percent) and Zone 3 (18.92 percent). Zones 5, 3 and 4 also witnessed the greatest share of houseless persons in the categories of 15 to 20 years (12.14 percent), 20 to 25 years (22.30 percent) and 25 to 30 years (10.47 percent) of houselessness respectively.

The houseless persons who have been houseless for more than 30 years constituted lesser proportion of houseless population in comparison to the houselessness of short duration. In spite of the low proportion of houseless people having long duration of houselessness, they are not still rehabilitated with the necessary infrastructural facilities and have not received the fruits of socio-economic development in the era of postmodernism by present day democratic government. These houseless people are born on the footpaths; they spend their whole lives on the pavements and ultimately pass away from this world with a dream of house in their eyes. The houseless people, with little intervention of the government, have been continuously increasing day by day and they in near future may produce very grave socio-economic problems in the city life.

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Chapter 7

Problems of Houseless Population

Whatever the socio-economic causes of houselessness have been but the socio-economic problems of houselessness may be atrocious, because problems are the socio-economic tackles that have negative influence on the life of individual houseless and on his socio-economic status, houselessness damages people's capability through loss of skills, lack of employment opportunities and education, cultural, caste and religious discrimination whilst worrying about housing, and the impaired health, etc. It also scathes people's resilience, self-esteem and self-confidence, as houselessness results in social and economic costs to individuals, families, communities and nation. It forces people away from their families, friends and communities and brings them into the difficult situation to maintain the standard of living, and leaves people vulnerable to long-term unemployment, malnourishment & under-nourishment, ill-health, substance addiction, humiliation, etc. Houseless is often excluded from participation in the social, recreational, cultural and economic life of communities. Therefore, there is need of structural explanation to investigate the wider social and economic reasons of houselessness rather than individual as causes of houselessness so that the problems faced by the houseless population can be solved through interventions on a broad societal scale to vanish the problem of houselessness. Thus, the present chapter deals with the study of the problems faced by houseless population like causes of interruption in sleeping and living on the footpaths, prevalence of bad habits among houseless people, morbidities, physical & mental disabilities, various socio-economic and infrastructural problems daily faced by them, inclement seasons, social affiliation & disaffiliation, need of security from unwanted things, negative attitude of general population, bad experiences at certain occasions, etc. so that their problems can be solved through preventions and interventions.

7.1. Status of interruption faced by houseless population

The Table 7.1 provides information about the interruptions in sleeping/living faced by the houseless population. It would be seen from the table that out of the total houseless population, 87.40 percent houseless persons faced the interruptions in their sleeping and/or living. The houseless females faced greater interruption in their sleeping/living than the houseless males i.e. 90.65 and 87.12 percent respectively.

Table 7.1: Percent Distribution of Interruptions Faced by Houseless Population in Sleeping/Living in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/Female	Interruptions in Sleeping/Living		
		Interruption	No interruption	Total
Zone 1	Male	96.62	3.38	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	100.00
	Total	96.77	3.23	100.00
Zone 2	Male	92.23	7.77	100.00
	Female	80.00	20.00	100.00
	Total	91.15	8.85	100.00
Zone 3	Male	79.31	20.69	100.00
	Female	95.45	4.55	100.00
	Total	81.88	18.12	100.00
Zone 4	Male	81.32	18.68	100.00
	Female	91.67	8.33	100.00
	Total	81.96	18.04	100.00
Zone 5	Male	77.71	22.29	100.00
	Female	87.50	12.50	100.00
	Total	78.61	21.39	100.00
Zone 6	Male	75.00	25.00	100.00
	Female	81.82	18.18	100.00
	Total	75.76	24.24	100.00
Total	Male	87.12	12.88	100.00
	Female	90.65	9.34	100.00
	Total	87.40	12.60	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey carried out by the researcher.

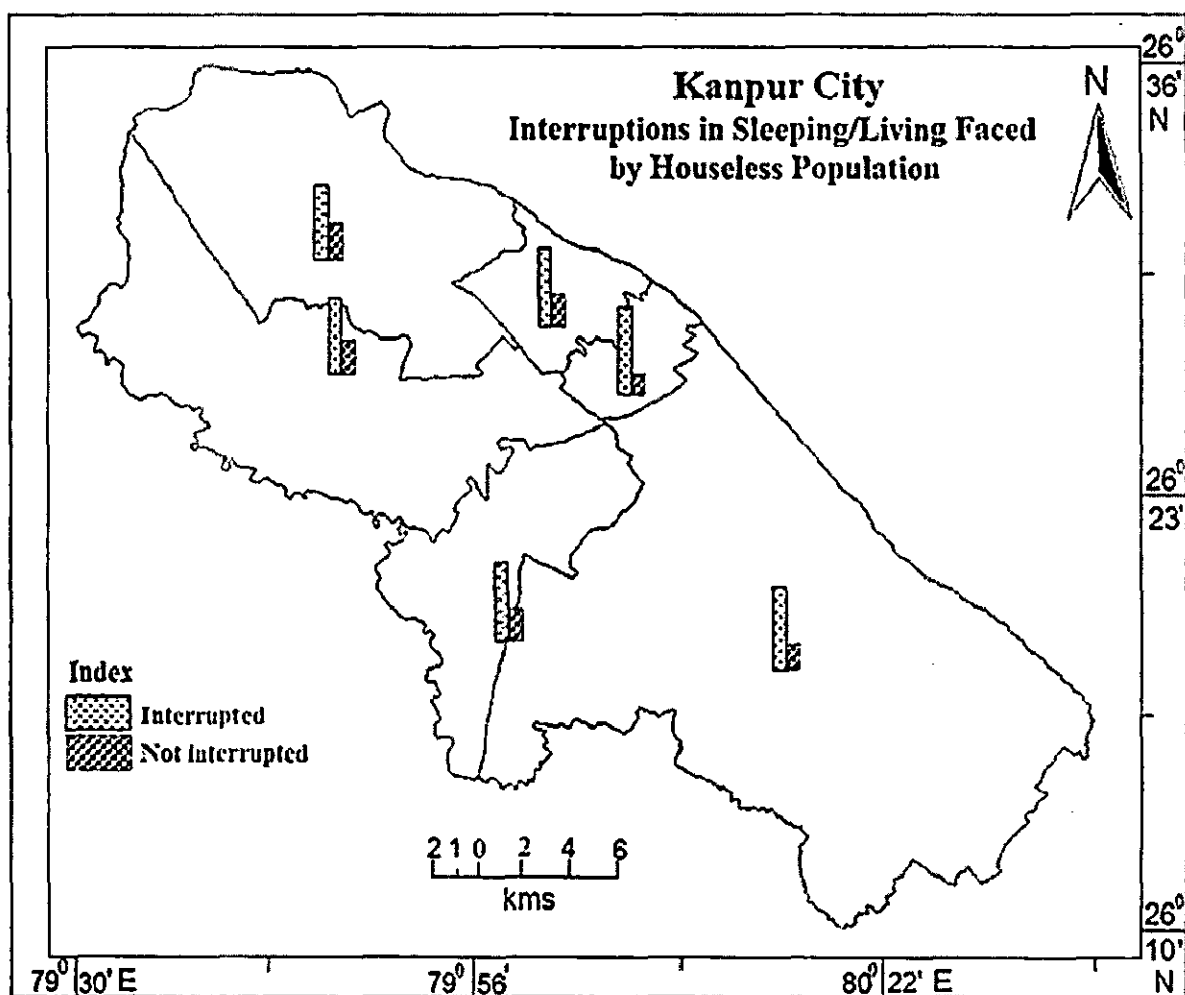
The houseless population of Zone 1 faced higher rate of interruption in their life especially at the time of sleeping in comparison with the houseless population of other zones whereas the least interruption is faced by the houseless population of Zone 6 i.e. 75.76 percent. However, more than three-fourth share of houseless population of all zones of the city has reported to be interrupted while sleeping (see Figure 7.1).

Table 7.1 shows that the houseless females experienced interruption in their sleeping/living in larger proportion than the houseless males in all zones, except in Zone 2 where houseless males exceeded the houseless females, their respective proportions being 92.23 and 80.00 percent. In Zone 1, hundred percent houseless females witnessed interruptions in their life while lowest percent value of such females is observed in Zone 2.

7.1.1. Causes of interruptions

A very detailed account of percent distribution of data about the causes of interruptions faced by houseless population in sleeping and living has been presented in the Table 7.2. Table 7.2 indicates that the major cause of interruption in sleeping/living is the inclement weather which

affects 17.23 percent houseless population, followed by the fear of theft, violence and death (16.21 percent) as a cause of interruption while sleeping/living at the footpaths. Both the causes together created inconvenience for about one-third (33.44 percent) houseless persons in their living as well as sleeping at informal places. The air pollution and mosquitoes have also significantly interrupted the houseless people causing inconvenience for 9.84 and 8.75 percent houseless persons respectively. It means that the above mentioned four causes of interruptions alone have interrupted more than half (52.03 percent) of the houseless population in comparison to all other remaining causes.



Source: Based on table 7.1.

Fig. 7.1

Further analysis of the Table 7.2 reveals that the policemen who patrol in an area for the security of its people and to maintain law and order, have in-turn interrupted these houseless people in a number of ways. They used to collect money from the houseless people monthly as a price for sleeping at footpaths and night shelter homes, and even imprisoned them in fake cases in order to protect other elite people by taking a handsome amount of money. The police chasing is recorded as a cause of interruption by 7.59 percent of the houseless people.

Table 7.2: Percent Distribution of Causes of Interruption Faced by Homeless Population in Sleeping/Living in Kanpur City

Zones	M/ F/ T	Causes of interruption in sleeping/living																
		Inclement weather	Fear of theft, violence & death	Air pollution	Mosquitoes	Policemen chasing	Noise pollution	No street light	Physical abuse	Traffic	Family tension	Drunkards	Local people	Craving for addiction or hunger	Sexual abuse	Health problems	Others	Total
Zone 1	M	18.65	17.32	9.48	12.10	6.71	5.62	4.96	5.81	4.21	5.74	4.06	2.73	1.37	0.16	1.01	0.08	100.00
	F	17.14	12.86	9.29	13.57	7.14	5.00	2.86	7.86	6.43	2.14	2.86	3.57	3.57	5.00	0.71	-	100.00
	T	18.57	17.09	9.47	12.17	6.73	5.59	4.85	5.92	4.33	5.55	4.00	2.77	1.48	0.41	1.00	0.07	100.00
Zone 2	M	16.24	14.19	8.21	8.38	8.38	7.01	6.50	6.67	5.47	4.96	5.13	3.42	2.22	2.39	0.85	-	100.00
	F	13.89	11.11	2.78	2.78	8.33	8.33	13.89	5.56	2.78	-	11.11	5.56	2.78	11.11	-	-	100.00
	T	16.10	14.01	7.89	8.05	8.37	7.09	6.92	6.60	5.31	4.67	5.48	3.54	2.25	2.90	0.81	-	100.00
Zone 3	M	16.13	15.56	8.92	4.74	11.39	7.21	7.78	5.69	8.73	4.74	3.80	1.90	0.76	1.52	1.14	-	100.00
	F	19.44	19.44	15.74	2.78	2.78	3.70	4.63	3.70	2.78	5.56	13.89	1.85	-	2.78	0.93	-	100.00
	T	16.69	16.22	10.08	4.41	9.92	6.61	7.24	5.35	7.72	4.88	5.51	1.89	0.63	1.73	1.10	-	100.00
Zone 4	M	16.86	15.84	10.86	4.73	7.54	9.07	8.05	4.60	8.68	3.70	4.60	2.17	1.28	0.38	1.28	0.38	100.00
	F	12.86	15.71	10.00	2.86	7.14	8.57	2.86	7.14	5.71	2.86	5.71	4.29	7.14	5.71	1.43	-	100.00
	T	16.53	15.83	10.79	4.57	7.50	9.03	7.62	4.81	8.44	3.63	4.69	2.34	1.76	0.82	1.29	0.35	100.00
Zone 5	M	16.58	17.08	10.95	5.80	6.63	7.79	6.63	3.48	7.30	4.64	3.32	3.81	3.15	1.49	1.16	0.17	100.00
	F	14.74	13.68	12.63	4.21	4.21	8.42	7.37	6.32	6.32	3.16	2.11	4.21	4.21	5.26	3.16	-	100.00
	T	16.33	16.62	11.17	5.59	6.30	7.88	6.73	3.87	7.16	4.44	3.15	3.87	3.30	2.01	1.43	0.14	100.00
Zone 6	M	15.97	15.66	10.70	8.84	9.46	6.20	6.98	6.36	3.26	4.65	2.79	2.95	2.33	2.17	1.71	-	100.00
	F	11.70	9.57	7.45	5.32	8.51	6.38	5.32	9.57	7.45	6.38	3.19	3.19	6.38	6.38	3.19	-	100.00
	T	15.43	14.88	10.28	8.39	9.34	6.22	6.77	6.77	3.79	4.87	2.84	2.98	2.84	2.71	1.89	-	100.00
Total	M	17.40	16.42	9.78	8.99	7.73	6.68	6.20	5.54	5.59	5.05	4.00	2.79	1.68	0.91	1.14	0.11	100.00
	F	15.47	14.00	10.50	6.26	6.08	6.26	5.16	6.81	5.52	3.68	5.89	3.50	3.87	5.34	1.66	-	100.00
	T	17.23	16.21	9.84	8.75	7.59	6.64	6.11	5.65	5.58	4.93	4.16	2.85	1.87	1.30	1.18	0.10	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

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The noise pollution and non-availability of street light also interrupted the houseless people on a daily basis, with 6.64 percent houseless people being interrupted by noise pollution caused by vehicles, music and public echoing during their sleep, and 6.11 percent houseless people being affected by the non-availability of street lights which hindered their smooth functioning at night as they could not easily move in the darkness for defecation and urinal purposes, for drinking water, sleeping, and could not safeguard themselves from unwanted things (look Box 7.1).

Box 7.1: Interruptions Faced by Houseless Population in Sleeping and Living

1. "Police use to capture us in fake cases and says that you are thief" (Alam: 25, Amroha).
2. "My father and mother died in accidents with a truck and car respectively on the footpath" (Lakhan Singh: 20, Kanpur Nagar).
3. "My son was shot down by a rich man during DJ music in marriage on the road. The bullet passed through his stomach, 4 lakh rupees expenditure was occurred in treatment that was paid by the owner of the hotel where I work. Now I have been paying it back per month in stallments from my salary" (Naresh: 36, Basti).
4. "I have lost my husband in an accident, now I am living on the footpaths" (Shamina: 55, Unnao).
5. "Municipal people always use to disturb our weaving business along roads and policemen use to take away our mats without paying for them" (Kallo: 19, Kanpur Nagar).
6. "Time creates the inconvenience, nobody make inconvenience to anybody" (Uma Shanker: 55, Rai Bareli).
7. "Drunkards kidnapped my sister and sexually harassed her" (Babloo: 25, Mahoba).

Source: Based on primary survey by the researcher.

The houseless people are very ill treated by the common people as they are orally abused & mocked and hit by throwing stones, water, garbage, waste material, etc. The physical abuse is encountered by 5.65 percent of houseless persons, followed by people affected due to traffic (5.58 percent), family tensions (4.93 percent), drunkards (4.16 percent), local people (2.85 percent), craving for addiction or hunger (1.87 percent), sexual abuse (1.30 percent), health problems (1.18 percent) and others (0.10 percent). The category of others includes such causes of interruption as the opening & closing timing of shops (0.04 percent) and negative behaviour

of shoppers (0.06 percent). Houseless females are found to be more interrupted by interruptible causes like air pollution, physical abuse, drunkards, local people, craving for addiction or hunger, sexual abuse and health problems than the houseless males.

It will be seen from the Table 7.2 that the inclement weather caused the greatest interruption for the houseless population of Zone 1 (18.57 percent) and least for the houseless population of Zone 6 (15.43 percent). The inclement weather occupied the greatest proportion of houseless population in all the zones of the city among all the interrupting causes of sleeping/living, barring Zone 5 wherein the fear of theft, violence & death (16.62 percent) marginally exceeded the inclement weather (16.33 percent). The interruption in sleeping/living caused by the fear of theft, violence & death is witnessed highest (17.09 percent) in Zone 1 and the lowest (14.01 percent) in Zone 2.

The air pollution is the most significant cause of interruption for the houseless people of Zone 5 (11.17 percent). That is why, the Kanpur city is well known for the three Ds namely, *Dhool*¹, *Dhuan*², *Dhakkad*³. So, *Dhool* (dust) and *Dhuan* (smoke) as the part of air pollution (9.84 percent) and *Dhakkad* as a part of traffic congestion (5.58 percent) combinedly interrupted 15.42 percent houseless population. The Zone 1 constituted more than ten percent houseless population interrupted by the mosquitoes while sleeping i.e. 12.17 percent, whereas the share of houseless population interrupted by the mosquitoes is observed minimum in Zone 3 i.e. 4.41 percent.

Moreover, the police-chasing is a very consistent cause of interruption faced by houseless population while sleeping/living in all the zones of the city which ranges from 9.92 percent in Zone 3 to 6.30 percent in Zone 5. Further, Zone 4 registered the highest percentage of interruptions caused by noise pollution (9.03 percent), no street light (7.62 percent), traffic (8.44 percent) and others (0.35 percent). The highest range of interruption caused by local people (3.87 percent) and craving for addiction or hunger (3.30 percent) is occurred in Zone 5, whereas the physical abuse and health problems recorded maximum percental values, 6.77 and 1.89 percent respectively, in Zone 6, while Zones 1, 2 and 3 witnessed highest values of interruptions imposed by the family tension (5.55 percent), sexual abuse (2.90 percent) and drunkards (5.51 percent) respectively.

¹. Dust is fine powdery material such as dry Earth or pollen that can be blown about in the air.

². Smoke is a hot vapour containing fine particles of carbon being produced by combustion.

³. Jostle which make one's way by, pushing, or shoving.

7.2. The bad habits prevalent among houseless population

The percent distribution of data on the bad habits among the houseless population is set out in the Table 7.3. This table exhibits that majority of the houseless population is substance addicted in which houseless males are more addicted than the houseless females. For example, out of the total selected houseless population, 87.34 percent houseless population has been reported as the victim of bad habits (see Plates 7.1 to 7.3) while remaining only 12.66 percent houseless persons are found free of such habits. The respective figures for addicted houseless males and females are 90.48 and 30.48 percent.

Table 7.3: Percent Distribution of Bad Habits among Houseless Population

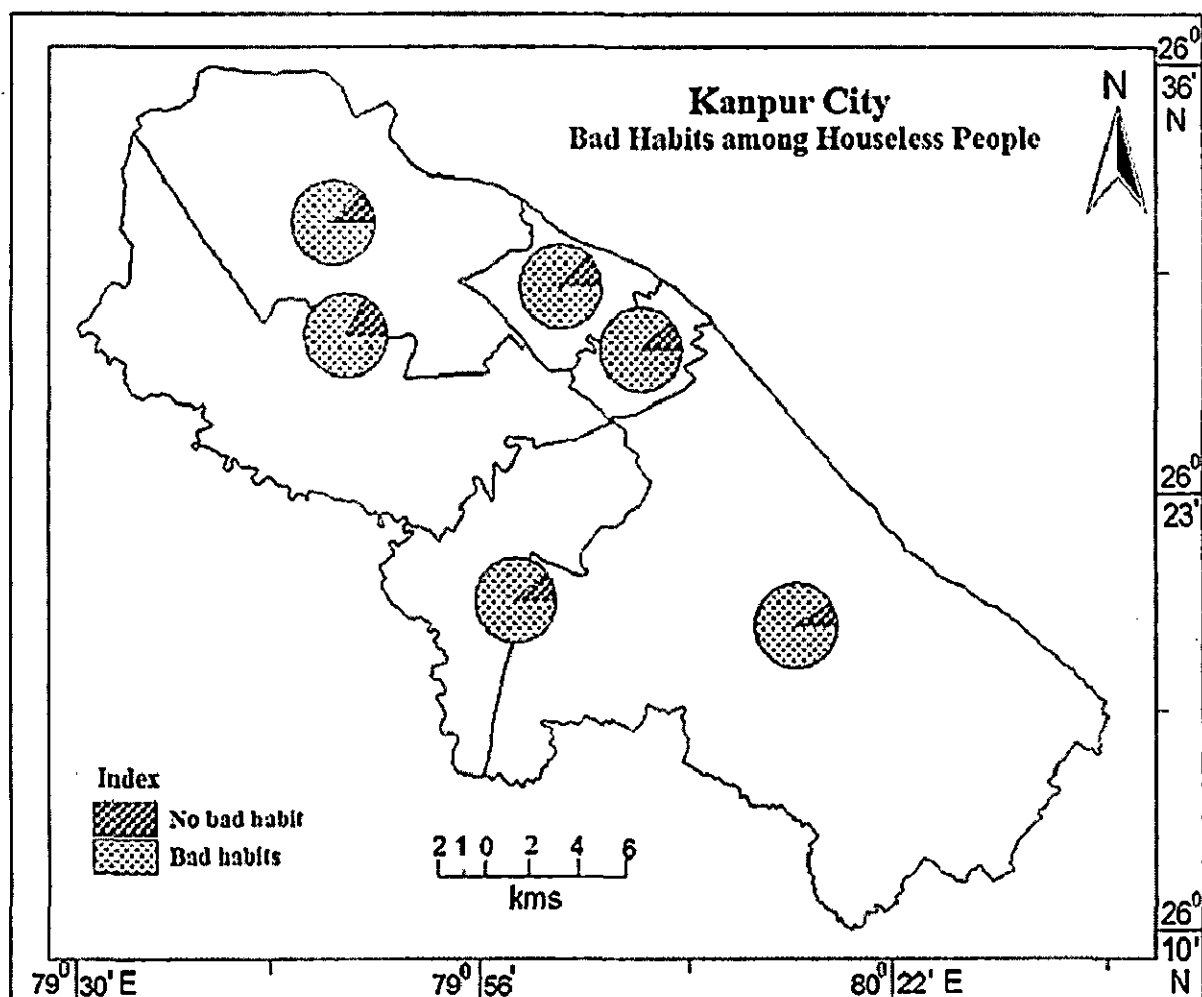
Zones	Male/ Female	Bad habits among houseless population						
		No bad habits	Bad habits	Tobacco chewing	Smoking	Liquor drinking	Addiction of drugs	Others
Zone 1	Male	9.78	90.22	41.96	29.86	14.80	1.54	2.06
	Female	76.92	23.08	19.23	3.85	-	-	-
	Total	11.96	88.04	41.22	29.02	14.32	1.49	1.99
Zone 2	Male	5.33	94.67	43.79	31.36	18.93	-	0.59
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	9.09	90.91	42.05	30.11	18.18	-	0.57
Zone 3	Male	7.51	92.49	47.98	28.90	15.61	-	-
	Female	36.36	63.64	63.64	-	-	-	-
	Total	10.77	89.23	49.74	25.64	13.85	-	-
Zone 4	Male	10.85	89.15	41.86	32.17	13.57	1.55	-
	Female	75.00	25.00	16.67	-	8.33	-	-
	Total	13.70	86.30	40.74	30.74	13.33	1.48	-
Zone 5	Male	12.17	87.83	40.00	31.74	14.78	1.30	-
	Female	81.25	18.75	18.75	-	-	-	-
	Total	16.67	83.33	38.62	29.67	13.82	1.22	-
Zone 6	Male	9.15	90.85	38.64	29.83	19.32	2.71	0.34
	Female	72.73	27.27	22.73	-	4.55	-	-
	Total	13.56	86.44	37.54	27.76	18.30	2.52	0.32
Total	Male	9.52	90.48	41.90	30.44	15.77	1.42	0.95
	Female	69.52	30.48	27.62	0.95	1.90	-	-
	Total	12.66	87.34	41.16	28.90	15.05	1.35	0.90

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Out of the total houseless population which is the victim of bad habits, more than two-fifth proportion of houseless persons (41.16 percent) chew tobacco or *Pan Masala*⁴ and more than one-fourth (28.90 percent) houseless people inhale the smoke from cigarettes, cigars,

⁴. Pan Masala is the tobacco chewing products and leaves.

pipes, *beedis*⁵, etc., followed by liquor drinking (15.05 percent), drug addiction (1.35 percent) (look Box 7.2) and others (0.90 percent).



Source: Based on table 7.3.

Fig. 7.2

The category of other bad habits incorporates the practice of gambling (0.45 percent), abusing (0.25 percent) and stealing (0.20 percent). The houseless females who are found victim of bad habits (30.48 percent) are mainly involved in tobacco chewing (27.62 percent), smoking (0.95 percent) and liquor drinking (1.90 percent). However, the houseless male victims of bad habits (90.48 percent) have been registered more or less in all the categories of bad habits.

An examination of the data given in Table 7.3 illustrates that more than eighty percent of the houseless population in all the zones is involved in bad habits, with their maximum (90.91 percent) and minimum (83.33 percent) proportions being observed in Zone 2 and in Zone 5 respectively (see Figure 7.2).

⁵. Beedi is a local low grade rolled tobacco Indian cigarette.

Plates: Bad Habits and Morbidities among Houseless Population in Kanpur City



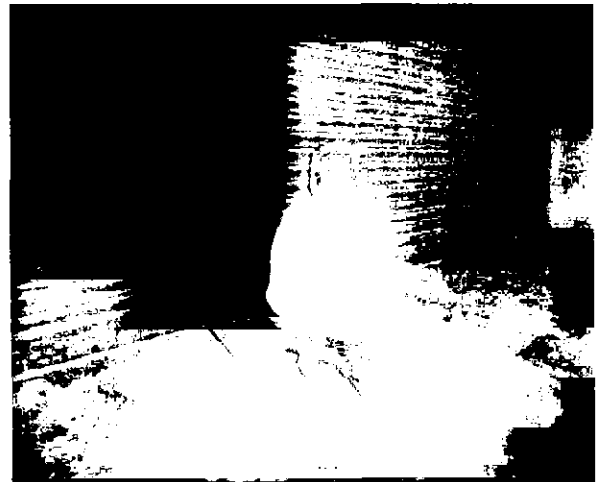
7.1: Liquor Drinking



7.2: Drug Addiction



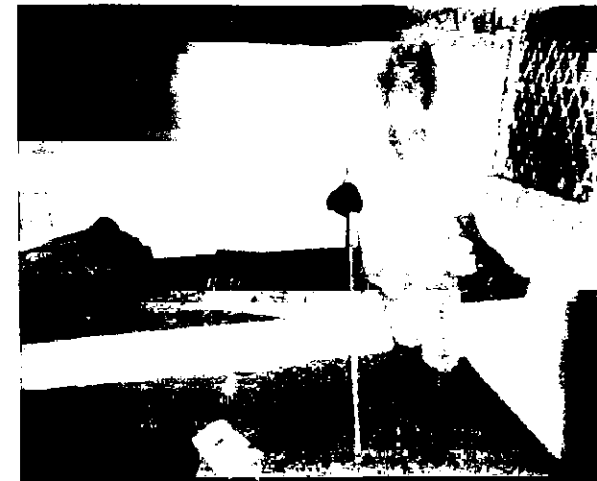
7.3: Substance Addiction



7.4: Asthma and T.B.



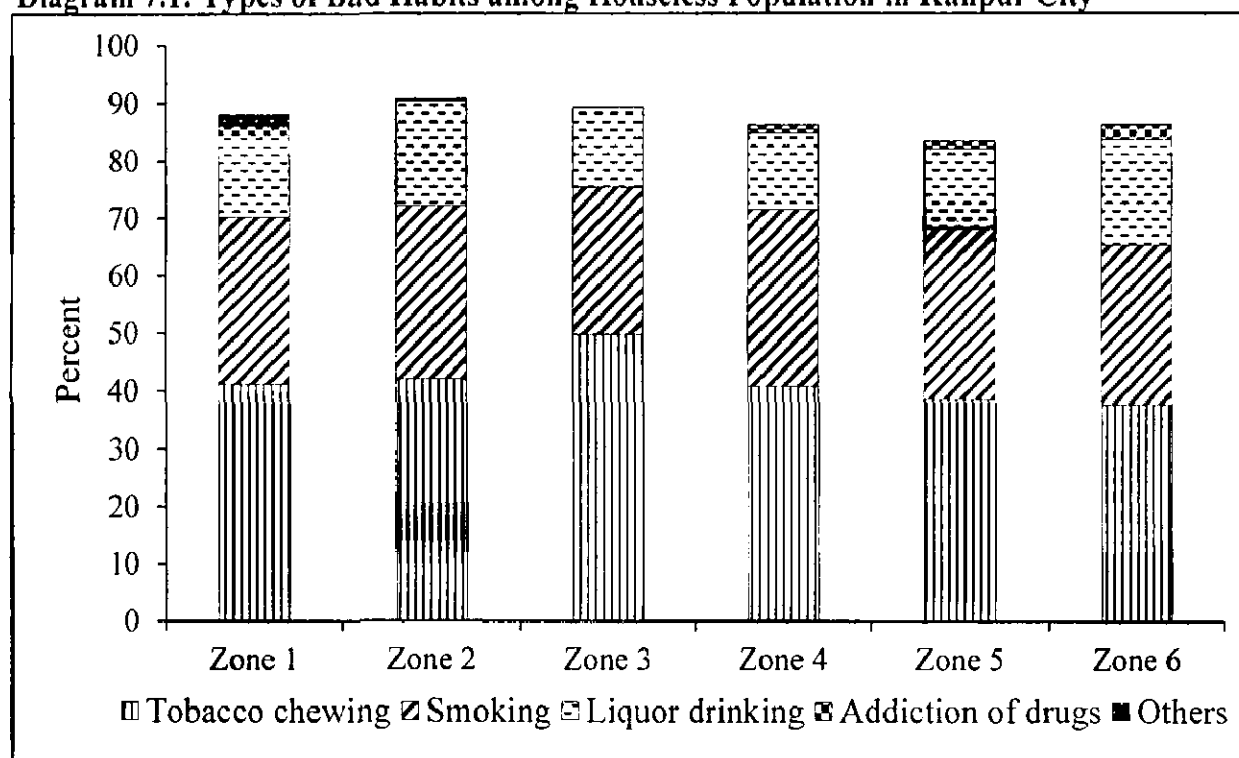
7.5: Skin Infestation



7.6: Back Ache and Foot Problem

The tobacco chewing is the main bad habit found among the houseless population as it involved more than one-third houseless people in each zone of the city. The highest proportion of houseless persons under the category of tobacco chewing is recorded in Zone 3 i.e. 49.74 percent, followed by Zone 2 (42.05 percent), Zone 1 (41.22 percent), Zone 4 (40.74 percent), Zone 5 (38.62 percent) and Zone 6 (37.54 percent). The second most important bad habit among the houseless people is smoking which also involved more than one-fourth houseless persons in all the zones of Kanpur city, its ratio varying from the highest 30.74 percent in Zone 4 to the lowest 25.64 percent in Zone 3. The liquor drinking is also one of the most prevalent bad habits among the houseless people after tobacco chewing and smoking, as the houseless population in Zones 6 and 2 is found more addicted to liquor drinking viz., 18.30 and 18.18 percent respectively. The habit of drugs addiction is found very little among the houseless people, with even no houseless person being recorded under it in Zones 2 and 3, its maximum proportion being observed only 2.52 percent in Zone 6. Under the category of other bad habits, the largest ratio of houseless people is witnessed in Zone 1 (1.99 percent) (vide Diagram 7.1).

Diagram 7.1: Types of Bad Habits among Houseless Population in Kanpur City



Source: Based on Table 7.3.

The analysis of bad habits among the houseless males and females depicts that no female in Zone 2 has been found to have any bad habit, and in Zones 3 and 5 they are found to

have only the habit of chewing tobacco. The two bad habits namely tobacco chewing and liquor drinking among the houseless females are registered in Zones 4 and 6, whereas Zone 1 witnessed tobacco chewing and smoking as bad habits among the houseless females. Barring the category of others, the houseless males have all kinds of bad habits as listed in Table 7.3 in all the zones of the city except the addiction of drugs in Zone 3.

7.3. The morbidities prevalent among houseless respondents

An elaborate account of percent distribution of data about the prevalence of various diseases among the houseless respondents⁶ has been provided in Table 7.4. The health problems are extremely high among the homeless respondents. For a houseless population living on rent, a serious illness can start a downward spiral into absolute houselessness, beginning with the loss of job leading to unemployment, depletion of savings to pay for care, low income, remittances, poverty, and eventual eviction.

Box 7.2: Bad Habits/ Morbidities/Disabilities among Houseless Population

1. "I can not live without drugs and injections of narcotics" (Shivot Katyar: 22, Kanpur Nagar).
2. "Husband left me due to my illness (tuberculosis), now I am living with my mother who begs for our survival" (Rita: 46, Unnao).
3. "I met an accident and lost my legs and back bone, now I am surviving through begging" (Ram Kumar: 65 Kanpur Dehat).
4. "I was the driver of a truck but they throw me out of the running truck and I lost my legs. Now I am rendering as houseless and don't know what to do" (Rajesh: 58, Gonda).
5. "An accident has occurred in which I have lost my legs. Now I have to go home. I have a PBL card; can I get treatment through it?" (Chhabeel: 37, Unnao).
6. "My Husband lost his legs in an accident, and I have to work as labourer now" (Devi: 44, Fatehpur).
7. "Initially I was a rickshaw puller, but in an accident I lost my one hand and feet. Now I am begging to survive" (Mohan: 75, Rae Bareli).
8. "I was the manager of a hotel but, unfortunately, there occurred an accident in which I lost my leg and consequently job too. Meanwhile, my brother extorted my land, and now I am compelled to live on the streets" (Ajay Pandey: 45, Kanpur Dehat).

Source: Based on primary survey by the researcher.

⁶ The analysis of the data of morbidities among houseless respondents has been made separately from houseless households' family members to know their status in this regard.

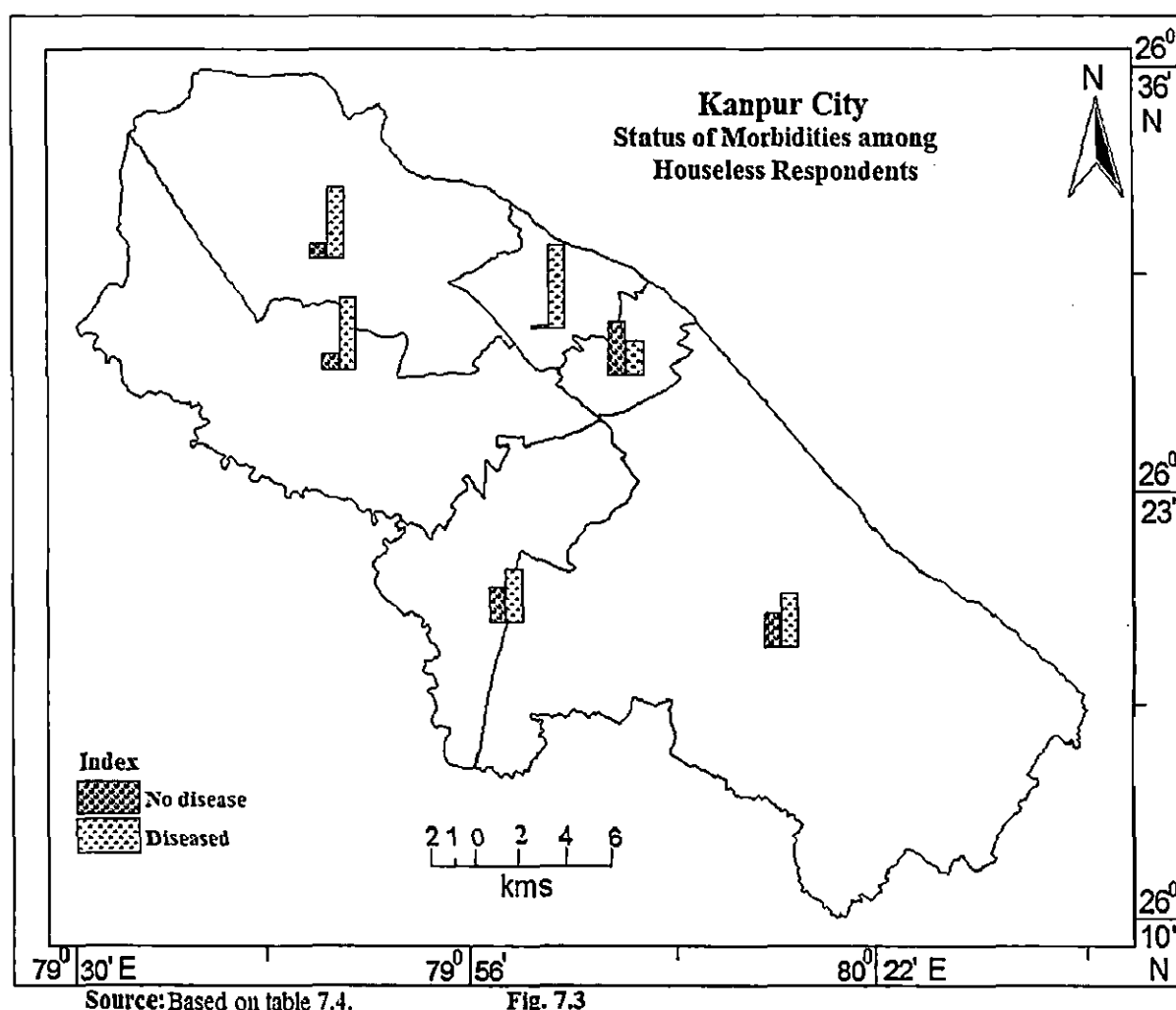
Table 7.4: Zone Wise Percent Distribution of Morbidities among Houseless Respondents* in Kanpur City

Zones	M/ F/ T	Morbidities among houseless respondents																		
		No Disease	Diseased	Asthma	Skin infestation	Foot problem	Back ache	Gastroenteritis	Stomach ailment	Migraine	Visual impairment	Tuberculosis	Arthritis	Chest pain	Body pain	Dental problem	Hypertension	Hydrocele	Earache	Others
Zone 1	M	59.30	40.70	5.22	3.48	3.65	3.83	3.30	1.39	0.17	1.74	2.09	1.22	1.04	1.57	1.04	1.04	0.87	1.39	7.65
	F	29.03	70.97	9.68	3.23	3.23		3.23	6.45		9.68	3.23	3.23			3.23	3.23		3.23	19.35
	T	57.76	42.24	5.45	3.47	3.63	3.63	3.30	1.65	0.17	2.15	2.15	1.32	0.99	1.49	1.16	1.16	0.83	1.49	8.25
Zone 2	M	44.03	55.97	6.72	6.72	10.45	6.72	2.99	1.49	1.49	2.24	2.24	-	2.99	0.75	1.49	0.75	2.24	0.75	5.97
	F	21.43	78.57	7.14	14.29	-	7.14	7.14	-	-	-	7.14	-	-	7.14	-	14.29	-	-	14.29
	T	41.89	58.11	6.76	7.43	9.46	6.76	3.38	1.35	1.35	2.03	2.7	-	2.70	1.35	1.35	2.03	2.03	0.68	6.76
Zone 3	M	41.67	58.33	3.85	3.85	3.21	3.85	7.05	3.21	1.92	3.21	7.69	3.21	1.28	0.64	2.56	0.64	0.64	0.64	12.18
	F	57.14	42.86	-	-	7.14	-	7.14	-	7.14	-	-	-	-	14.29	-	-	-	-	7.14
	T	42.94	57.06	3.53	3.53	3.53	3.53	7.06	2.94	2.35	2.94	7.06	2.94	1.18	1.76	2.36	0.59	0.59	0.59	11.76
Zone 4	M	19.19	80.81	5.90	5.54	7.01	6.27	7.01	4.43	4.06	4.43	0.74	5.54	3.69	1.85	1.11	2.21	2.95	1.11	16.97
	F	9.09	90.91	4.55	18.18	4.55	13.64	4.55	9.09	13.64	-	-	-	4.55	4.55	-	9.09	-	-	4.55
	T	18.43	81.57	5.80	6.48	6.83	6.83	6.83	4.78	4.78	4.10	0.68	5.12	3.75	2.05	1.02	2.73	2.73	1.02	16.04
Zone 5	M	29.41	70.59	5.35	5.88	4.81	4.81	5.88	6.42	6.42	3.21	1.07	2.67	7.49	1.60	2.13	1.07	0.53	1.60	10.16
	F	13.04	86.96	8.70	21.74	4.35	8.70	-	4.35	4.35	8.70	4.35	-	-	-	8.70	-	-	-	13.04
	T	27.62	72.38	5.71	7.62	4.76	5.24	5.24	6.19	6.19	3.81	1.43	2.38	6.67	1.43	2.86	0.95	0.48	1.43	10.48
Zone 6	M	30.22	69.78	8.44	7.56	7.56	5.78	5.78	5.78	4.44	2.67	2.22	2.22	1.78	1.78	1.77	0.89	-	-	11.56
	F	12.82	87.18	5.13	5.13	5.13	7.69	5.13	5.13	12.82	5.13	5.13	7.69	-	2.56	-	2.56	-	-	17.95
	T	27.65	72.35	7.95	7.20	7.20	6.06	5.68	5.68	5.68	3.03	2.65	3.03	1.52	1.89	1.52	1.14	-	-	12.50
Total	M	41.34	58.66	5.81	5.04	5.49	4.91	4.97	3.36	2.52	2.71	2.33	2.39	2.58	1.49	1.49	1.16	1.16	1.03	10.47
	F	20.98	79.02	6.29	9.79	4.20	6.29	4.20	4.90	6.99	4.90	3.50	2.80	0.70	3.50	2.10	4.20	-	0.70	13.99
	T	39.62	60.38	5.85	5.44	5.38	5.03	4.91	3.49	2.90	2.90	2.42	2.42	2.42	1.66	1.54	1.42	1.06	1.01	10.76

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher. Note: T- Total; M- Male; F- Female

* The data of houseless households' family members excluded in this table.

The data given in Table 7.4 visualise that more than half (i.e. 60.38 percent) houseless respondents prostrated to various kinds of diseases and only 39.62 percent houseless people were physically fit and fine. Among the morbid houseless respondents, the five diseases were most commonly prevalent namely; asthma, skin infestation, foot problems, back ache and gastroenteritis which engraved more than one-fourth houseless persons (see Plates 7.4 to 7.6). The houseless female respondents were found more morbid (79.02 percent) than the male respondents (58.66 percent), and their relative share surpassed that of males in most of the diseases.



Two to four percent houseless people suffered each from stomach ailment, migraine, visual impairment, tuberculosis, arthritis and chest pain diseases, while less than two percent were affected each by body pain, dental problems, hypertension, hydrocele and earache. About 10.76 percent houseless persons were entangled in various other diseases like heart problems and blood pressure (0.83 percent each), elephantiasis (0.77 percent), daily nocturnal emission (0.71 percent), stone in kidney and hand problems (0.65 percent each), leprosy, dysentery and

sleeping problems (0.53 percent each), piles and joint pain (0.47 percent each), diabetes and pimples (0.41 percent each), ulcer in mouth (0.35 percent), stone in gall bladder, hernia and weakness (0.24 percent each), throat problems, cataract and head ache (0.18 percent each), male genital problems (0.12 percent), nose problems, malaria, eye problems, night blindness and dehydration (0.06 percent each) (look Box 7.2).

An analysis of the data given in Table 7.4 reveals that the largest proportion of diseased houseless respondents (81.57 percent) was found in Zone 4 which has smallest share of the houseless people having sound health (18.43 percent) in comparison to houseless respondents of all other zones of the city, whereas Zone 1 has the highest ratio of the houseless people who were found fit-and-fine (57.76 percent) where only 42.24 percent houseless respondents was prostrated to the diseases (see Figure 7.3)

Asthma was the most common disease among the houseless people of Zone 1 while the houseless people of Zone 2 have been suffering from the four most common diseases namely asthma (6.76 percent), skin infestation (7.43 percent), foot problems (9.46 percent) and backache (6.76 percent). In Zone 3, only two diseases i.e. gastroenteritis and tuberculosis engulfed 14.12 percent houseless persons out of the total diseased houseless respondents (57.06 percent). More than one-third proportion of the houseless people in Zone 4 (37.89 percent) was affected by asthma, skin infestation, foot problems, back aches, gastroenteritis, and arthritis, and almost same proportion in Zone 5 (36.19 percent) was found to be suffering similarly from asthma, skin infestation, back ache, gastroenteritis, stomach ailment and migraine. The main diseases which affected nearly two-third houseless people (62.81 percent) out of the total diseased houseless respondents (72.35 percent) in Zone 6 are asthma, skin infestation, foot problems, back ache, gastroenteritis, stomach ailment and migraine.

7.4. The morbidities prevalent among houseless households' family members

Table 7.5 contains the data about the morbidities prevalent among the houseless households' family members. The proportion of diseased houseless households' family members (2.79 percent) is very negligible, and the ratios of diseased male-female houseless households' family members are 3.19 and 2.15 percent respectively. There is no single diseased houseless households' family member in Zone 4 while only houseless households' male family members are prostrated to various kinds of diseases in Zones 2, 3 and 6 rather than any houseless households' female family member. Zone 1 and Zone 5 have both male and female morbid houseless households' family members but not more than five to seven percent.

Table 7.5: Zone Wise Percent Distribution of Morbidities among Houseless Households' Family Members* in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/ Female	Morbidities among households' family members															
		No Disease	Diseased	Handicapped	Asthma	Stomach pain	Arthritis	Hypertension	Cataract	Migraine	Weakness	Leprosy	Throat pain	Skin problem	Mental illness	Tuberculosis	Total
Zone 1	Male	94.64	5.36	33.33	-	33.33	-	-	-	-	-	-	33.33	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	92.50	7.50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	33.33	-	33.33	33.33	-	100.00
	Total	93.75	6.25	16.67	-	16.67	-	-	-	-	-	16.67	16.67	16.67	16.67	-	100.00
Zone 2	Male	95.65	4.35	50.00	-	16.67	-	-	16.67	-	16.67	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	96.05	3.95	50.00	-	16.67	-	-	16.67	-	16.67	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	96.00	4.00	16.67	-	-	33.33	16.67	16.67	16.67	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	96.83	3.17	16.67	-	-	33.33	16.67	16.67	16.67	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Zone 4	Male	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	93.94	6.06	25.00	37.50	-	-	12.50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25.00	100.00
	Female	97.06	2.94	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	94.58	5.42	33.33	33.33	-	-	11.11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	22.22	100.00
Zone 6	Male	99.14	0.86	50.00	-	50.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	99.28	0.72	50.00	-	50.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
Total	Male	96.81	3.19	32.00	12.00	12.00	8.00	8.00	8.00	4.00	4.00	-	4.00	-	-	8.00	100.00
	Female	97.85	2.15	25.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25.00	-	25.00	25.00	-	100.00
	Total	97.21	2.79	33.33	11.11	11.11	7.41	7.41	7.41	3.70	3.70	3.70	3.70	3.70	3.70	0.02	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

* The data of houseless respondents excluded in this table.

This table shows that among the morbid houseless households' family members, one-third were handicapped, followed by those suffering from asthma and stomach ailment (11.11 percent each), arthritis, hypertension and cataract (7.41 percent each), and migraine, weakness, leprosy, throat pain, skin infestation and mental illness (3.70 percent each), and tuberculosis (0.02 percent). As can be seen from the Table 7.5, one-fourth proportion of female houseless households' family members were afflicted by handicap (physical or visual), leprosy, skin infestation and mental illness (25.00 percent each), while male houseless households' family members were prostrated to all kinds of morbidities as listed in the Table 7.5 barring the leprosy, skin infestation and mental illness. The handicap and stomach ailment have fifty-fifty share in the diseased houseless family members in Zone 6 whereas no houseless households' family member has been found affected by any disease in Zone 4. Each of the diseases (16.67 percent) namely handicapped, stomach ailment, leprosy, throat pain, skin infestation and mental illness contributed hundred percent diseased houseless households' family members in Zone 1. The houseless family members in the Zone 2 were mainly handicapped (50.00 percent), followed by those having stomach ailment, cataract and weakness (16.67 percent each). Likewise, the people having arthritis (33.33 percent), handicap, hypertension, cataract and migraine (16.67 percent each) constituted all the diseased houseless households' family members in Zone 3, whereas the four diseases affecting the morbid houseless households' family members in Zone 5 were found to be handicap and asthma (33.33 percent each), hypertension (11.11 percent) and tuberculosis (22.22 percent).

7.5. Physical disabilities among houseless population

Table 7.6 gives percent distribution of data of physically disabled houseless population. This table shows that out of the total sampled houseless households, 11.67 percent houseless population was physically disabled (see Plates 7.7 to 7.12), however, 88.33 percent houseless people were physically fit and fine in the city, the ratio of physical disability among the houseless males and females was 11.57 and 12.96 percent respectively. Among the physically disabled houseless population, 6.82 percent houseless persons were handicapped by legs, followed by paraplegic (1.48 percent), deaf and handicapped by hands (1.13 percent each), blind (0.91 percent) and polio ridden (0.21 percent). The ratio of houseless males exceeded the females in three categories i.e. handicapped by legs, paraplegia and handicapped by hands but the reverse trend has been recorded in the categories of deaf, blind and polio (look Box 7.2).

Plates: Physically Disabled Houseless Population in Kanpur City



7.7: Handicapped by Legs at Rai Purwa



7.8: Handicapped by Legs at Zazmau South



7.9: Blind Older People at Zazmau North



7.10: Handicapped by Legs at Civil Line



7.11: Handicapped by Legs at Om Purwa



7.12: Elephantiasis

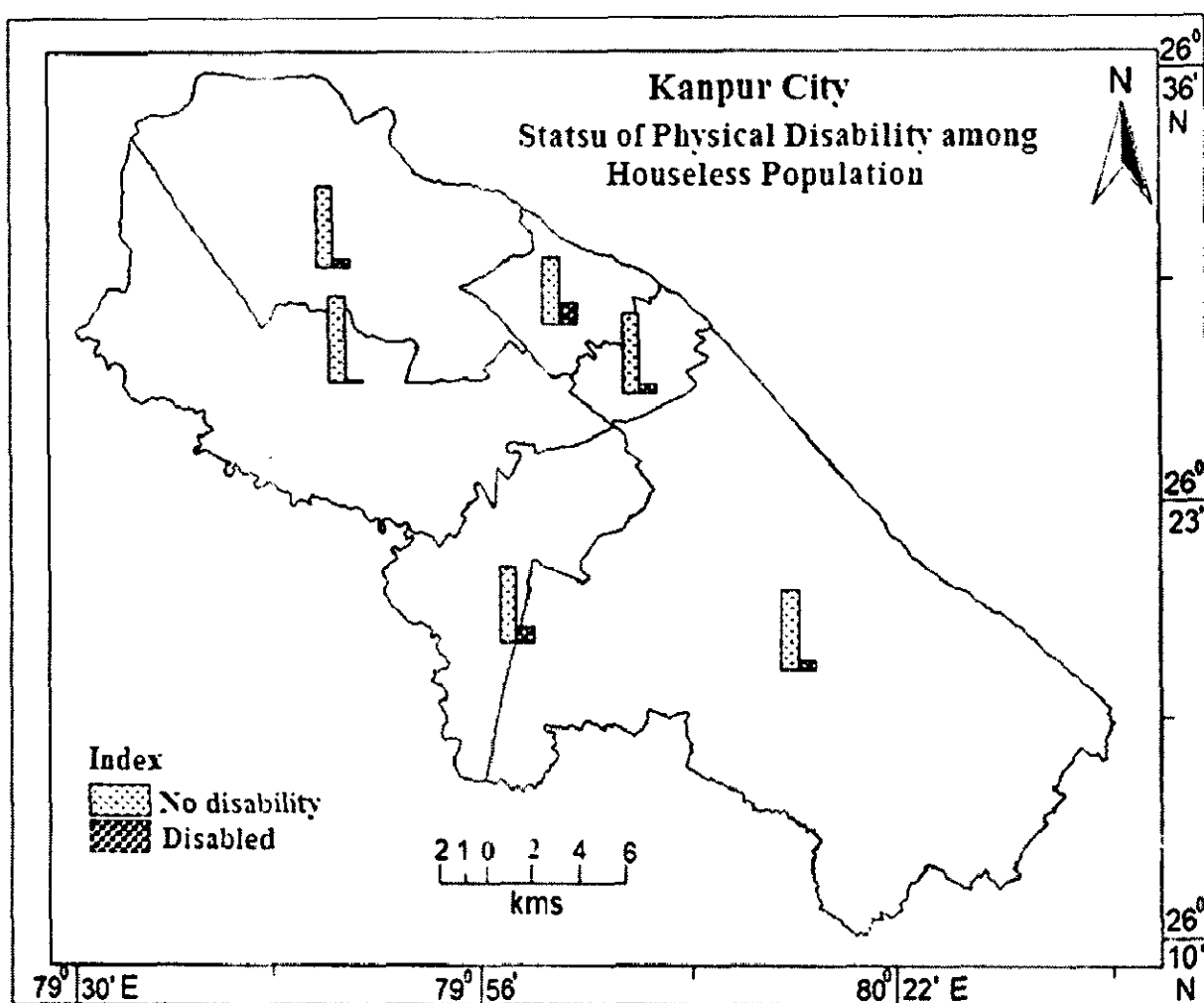
Table 7.6: Percent Distribution of Physically Disabled Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Physically disabled houseless population							
		No physically disabled	Physically disabled	Handicapped by legs	Paraplegia	Deaf	Handicapped by hands	Blind	Polio
Zone 1	Male	90.32	9.68	5.21	0.93	1.30	0.56	1.68	-
	Female	84.00	16.00	4.00	-	4.00	-	8.00	-
	Total	90.04	9.96	5.16	0.89	1.42	0.53	1.96	-
Zone 2	Male	89.42	10.58	6.73	-	1.92	0.96	-	0.96
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	90.35	9.65	6.14	-	1.75	0.88	-	0.88
Zone 3	Male	82.17	17.83	6.20	3.10	-	7.75	0.78	-
	Female	85.71	14.29	9.52	-	-	-	-	4.76
	Total	82.67	17.33	6.67	2.67	-	6.67	0.67	0.67
Zone 4	Male	76.81	23.19	17.87	2.42	1.93	0.48	0.48	-
	Female	71.43	28.57	14.29	7.14	-	7.14	-	-
	Total	76.47	23.53	17.65	2.71	1.81	0.90	0.45	-
Zone 5	Male	98.10	1.90	1.27	0.63	-	-	-	-
	Female	93.75	6.25	6.25	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	97.70	2.30	1.72	0.57	-	-	-	-
Zone 6	Male	91.62	8.38	5.03	2.79	0.56	-	-	-
	Female	90.91	9.09	-	-	4.55	-	-	4.55
	Total	91.54	8.46	4.48	2.49	1.00	-	-	0.50
Total	Male	88.43	11.57	6.93	1.52	1.07	1.14	0.84	0.08
	Female	87.04	12.96	5.56	0.93	1.85	0.93	1.85	1.85
	Total	88.33	11.67	6.82	1.48	1.13	1.13	0.91	0.21

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The close scrutiny of the data inserted in the Table 7.6 reveals that Zone 4 registered the highest (23.53 percent) proportion of physically disabled houseless population among all zones (see Figure 7.4). The percentage share of physically disabled houseless females was recorded higher than the physically disabled houseless males in all the zones barring Zone 3 in which ratio of physically disabled houseless males surmounted that of females, while Zone 2 recorded not a single physically disabled houseless female. The physical disabilities namely handicapped by legs, paraplegia, deaf, handicapped by hands and blind constituted the total 9.96 percent physically disabled houseless population in Zone 1, while 9.65 percent physically disabled houseless population of Zone 2 was composed of the people who were handicapped by legs, deaf, handicapped by hands and polio. The physically disabled houseless population of Zone 3 consisted of those handicapped by legs and by hands (6.67 percent each), paraplegic (2.67 percent), blind and polio ridden (0.67 percent each), whereas in Zone 5, having the least

proportion (2.30 percent) of physically disabled houseless population, it consisted of only of those handicapped by legs (1.72 percent) and paraplegic (0.57 percent). The three disabilities which represented the total physically disabled houseless persons in Zone 6 (8.46 percent) were handicapped by legs, paraplegia and deaf.



Source: Based on table 7.6.

Fig. 7.4

7.6. Mental illness among houseless population

Table 7.7 presents the distribution of data about the mental illness of houseless population in Kanpur city. The data given in Table 7.7 depicts that less than one-fifth (17.25 percent) houseless population was mentally ill (see Plate 7.13) while more than eighty percent (82.75 percent) houseless people were mentally fit and fine in the Kanpur city. The ratio of mental illness among the houseless males and females was 14.22 and 45.77 percent respectively. Moreover, the mentally ill houseless females were observed in greater proportion than the mentally ill houseless males in all the zones of the city except in Zone 3 wherein mentally ill houseless males (14.73 percent) overstepped the mentally ill houseless females (12.50

percent). The largest share of mentally unfit houseless population was registered in Zone 4 (25.81 percent) and Zone 5 (25.38 percent), and the smallest share in Zone 1 (11.23 percent).

Table 7.7: Percent Distribution of Mental Illness among Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Mentally ill houseless population							
		No mental illness	Mental illness	Depression	Trauma	Solitude	Anxiety	Sleeplessness	Suicide inclination
Zone 1	Male	89.93	10.07	6.16	2.05	1.31	-	0.19	0.37
	Female	64.00	36.00	32.00	-	4.00	-	-	-
	Total	88.77	11.23	7.31	1.96	1.43	-	0.18	0.36
Zone 2	Male	89.42	10.58	5.77	3.84	-	0.96	-	-
	Female	25.00	75.00	6.25	31.25	6.25	12.50	12.50	6.25
	Total	80.83	19.17	5.83	7.50	0.83	2.50	1.67	0.83
Zone 3	Male	85.27	14.73	2.33	1.55	1.55	8.53	0.78	-
	Female	87.50	12.50	4.17	4.17	4.17	-	-	-
	Total	85.62	14.38	2.61	1.96	1.96	7.19	0.65	-
Zone 4	Male	78.68	21.32	7.61	3.05	7.11	3.05	0.51	-
	Female	30.00	70.00	15.00	20.00	15.00	10.00	5.00	5.00
	Total	74.19	25.81	8.29	4.60	7.83	3.69	0.92	0.46
Zone 5	Male	80.00	20.00	6.67	10.56	-	2.78	-	-
	Female	39.29	60.71	17.86	25.00	3.57	14.29	-	-
	Total	74.52	25.48	8.17	12.50	0.48	4.33	-	-
Zone 6	Male	85.26	14.74	5.26	5.27	3.16	0.53	0.53	-
	Female	65.52	34.48	10.34	17.24	3.45	-	3.45	-
	Total	82.65	17.35	5.94	6.85	3.20	0.46	0.91	-
Total	Male	85.78	14.22	5.91	3.90	2.17	1.80	0.30	0.15
	Female	54.23	45.77	14.79	15.49	5.63	5.63	2.82	1.41
	Total	82.75	17.25	6.77	5.01	2.50	2.17	0.54	0.27

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Further analysis of the data provided in the Table 7.7 exhibits that the depression and trauma were the most common among the mental illnesses suffered by houseless population in the city, which accounted 6.77 and 5.01 percent respectively. The solitude and anxiety affected 2.50 and 2.17 percent houseless people respectively while the respective figures for sleeplessness and suicide inclination are 0.54 and 0.27 percent. The proportion of each mental illness among houseless females was higher than the houseless males. Zone wise analysis reveals that among the mentally ill houseless population in the city, depression was witnessed maximum in three zones, namely Zone 1 (7.31 percent), Zone 3 (2.61 percent), and Zone 4 (8.29 percent) in comparison to any other mental illness while in the remaining three zones i.e. Zones 2, 5 and 6 trauma was identified in maximal fraction accounting 7.50, 12.50 and 6.85



Plate 7.13: Mentally Ill Houseless Man with his Temporary House in Kanpur City

percent respectively. The feeling of solitude was experienced most among the houseless population of Zone 4 (7.83 percent) and least by the houseless persons of Zone 5 (0.48 percent), but the houseless people of Zone 5 experienced high degree of anxiousness (4.33 percent), whereas Zone 6 witnessed the least anxiety rate (0.46 percent). Zone 2 has the highest share of the houseless population suffering from sleeplessness (1.67 percent) and suicide inclination (0.83 percent). The houseless females observed fewer mental illnesses than the houseless males except in Zones 2 and 4, but they experienced them in larger proportion than the males in the whole study area.

7.7. Problems daily faced by houseless population

The percentage distribution of data about the daily problems faced by the houseless population is set out in the Table 7.8.

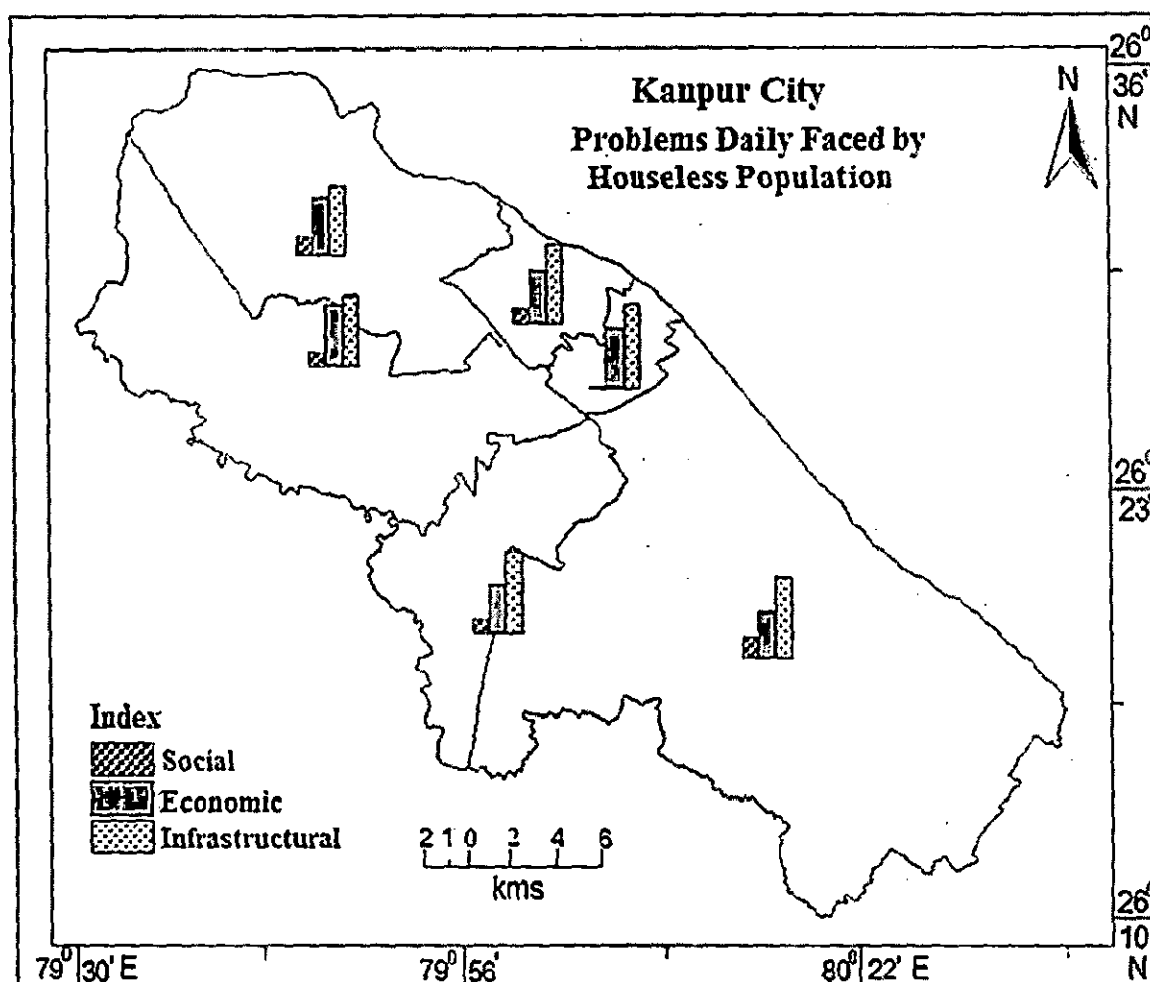
Table 7.8: Percent Distribution of Daily Problems Faced by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Daily problems faced by houseless population			
		Social	Economic	Infrastructural	Total
Zone 1	Male	13.61	38.21	48.18	100.00
	Female	18.64	35.17	46.19	100.00
	Total	13.87	38.05	48.08	100.00
Zone 2	Male	20.65	32.67	46.67	100.00
	Female	26.32	30.26	43.42	100.00
	Total	21.11	32.48	46.41	100.00
Zone 3	Male	18.40	33.69	47.91	100.00
	Female	23.28	31.47	45.26	100.00
	Total	19.37	33.25	47.39	100.00
Zone 4	Male	18.42	35.36	46.22	100.00
	Female	24.42	37.21	38.37	100.00
	Total	18.82	35.48	45.70	100.00
Zone 5	Male	18.50	39.37	42.13	100.00
	Female	20.97	35.48	43.55	100.00
	Total	18.77	38.95	42.28	100.00
Zone 6	Male	21.48	36.88	41.64	100.00
	Female	21.54	35.38	43.08	100.00
	Total	21.49	36.71	41.81	100.00
Total	Male	16.74	36.86	46.40	100.00
	Female	21.83	34.05	44.12	100.00
	Total	17.18	36.61	46.20	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Hoffman and Coffey (2008) also examine how houseless people have their views and interactions with service providers. The interactions of houseless with staff and service providers were predominantly expressed in sharply negative terms, with experiences of

objectification and infantilisation being commonplace. In response to these experiences, nearly all were angry, and many simply opted out of the social service system in order to maintain a sense of dignity and self-respect (pp. 207-222).



Source: Based on table 7.8.

Fig. 7.5

Table 7.8 reveals the fact that houseless population of Kanpur city faced a lot of infrastructural problems, followed by the economic and social problems daily in their life. Houseless females were confronted more with social problems than economic and infrastructural problems whereas with males it was vice versa. The ratio of infrastructural problems in each zone of the city was greater than the social and economic problems faced daily by the houseless people. The infrastructural problems were recorded more than forty percent in all the zones, varying from the highest 48.08 percent in Zone 1 to the lowest 41.81 percent in Zone 6.

Economic problems were the second most important problems daily confronted by the houseless persons because nearly one-third houseless people of each zone have to face a lot of economic problems in order to survive on the footpaths. The percental score of the economic

problems ranges from the maximum 38.95 percent in Zone 5 to the minimum 32.48 percent in Zone 2. The daily social problems were faced least by the houseless population in comparison to the economic and infrastructural problems, their highest occurrence being recorded to be 21.49 and 21.11 percent as witnessed in Zones 6 and 2 respectively. The houseless people living in Zone 1 faced the lowest degree of daily social problems (13.87 percent) in the city (see Figure 7.5).

The male-female break-up of the data shows that among the daily social problems faced by the houseless population, the ratio of houseless females exceeded the houseless males in each zone of the city. However, the economic problems were faced in larger proportion by males than the houseless females in all the zones, except in Zone 4 wherein the ratio of houseless females slightly overstepped the houseless males in the said category. Similarly, the houseless males also experienced higher proportion of infrastructural problems than the houseless females in the whole city excluding the Zones 5 and 6 in which the share of houseless females marginally exceeded the houseless males.

7.7.1. Social problems

The percental distribution of data about the daily social problems faced by the houseless population has been entered in the Table 7.9. This table describes the police harassment and municipal torment respectively constituted more than one-third and one-fifth share among all the social problems faced by the houseless population in the city. The hunger (17.44 percent) and local people torture (16.92 percent) also comprised a significant proportion of daily social problems suffered by the houseless persons, followed by violence (7.66 percent), drunkards (0.23 percent) and lack of education (0.17 percent). The houseless females faced fewer kinds of daily social problems and also in lower proportion than the houseless males except under the category of municipal torment and hunger (look Box 7.3).

An examination of data given in Table 7.9 depicts that the police harassment was the most prevalent daily social problem faced by the houseless people in all the zones of the city except in Zone 3 where it was replaced by the municipal torment, the municipal torment also which was also registered as the second most prevalent daily social problem in all other zones except in Zone 1 wherein the second position was occupied by hunger. The third position was shared fifty-fifty as it was occupied by hunger in Zones 1, 4 and 6, and by local people torture in Zones 2, 3 and 5.

Table 7.9: Percent Distribution of Social Problems Daily Faced by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Social problems daily faced by houseless population							
		Police harassment	Municipal torment	Hunger	Local people torture	Violence	Drunkards	Lack of education	Total
Zone 1	Male	36.02	12.69	18.87	17.32	14.41	0.69	-	100.00
	Female	22.73	18.18	40.91	13.64	4.55	-	-	100.00
	Total	35.09	13.08	20.41	17.07	13.72	0.64	-	100.00
Zone 2	Male	37.29	24.86	12.99	20.90	3.95	-	-	100.00
	Female	25.00	20.00	35.00	20.00	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	36.04	24.37	15.23	20.81	3.55	-	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	33.14	36.05	5.81	18.02	6.40	-	0.58	100.00
	Female	31.48	37.04	24.07	5.56	1.85	-	-	100.00
	Total	32.74	36.28	10.18	15.04	5.31	-	0.44	100.00
Zone 4	Male	34.82	23.21	18.75	15.18	8.04	-	-	100.00
	Female	23.81	14.29	33.33	23.81	4.76	-	-	100.00
	Total	33.88	22.45	20.00	15.92	7.76	-	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	36.17	25.53	16.49	20.74	0.53	-	0.53	100.00
	Female	23.08	26.92	30.77	19.23	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	34.58	25.70	18.22	20.56	0.47	-	0.47	100.00
Zone 6	Male	39.62	29.72	13.68	13.21	3.30	-	0.47	100.00
	Female	14.29	42.86	25.00	10.71	7.14	-	-	100.00
	Total	36.67	31.25	15.00	12.92	3.75	-	0.42	100.00
Total	Male	36.18	22.04	15.75	17.35	8.23	0.26	0.19	100.00
	Female	24.35	27.98	31.09	13.47	3.11	-	-	100.00
	Total	34.88	22.70	17.44	16.92	7.66	0.23	0.17	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Zone wise analysis discloses the fact that each zone of the city involved nearly one-third proportion of houseless people who suffered from the problem of police harassment, its maximum and minimum percentages being identified in Zone 6 (36.67 percent) and Zone 3 (32.74 percent) respectively. The maximal and minimal percent values of the occurrence of municipal torment were 36.38 percent in Zone 3 and 13.08 percent in Zone 1, whereas the problem of hunger varied from the highest 20.41 percent in Zone 1 to the lowest 10.18 percent in Zone 3. Moreover, the highest degrees of local people torture and violence were witnessed in Zones 2 and 1 respectively, and the lowest respectively in Zones 6 and 5. The problem of drunkards was faced only by the houseless people in Zone 1, while the lack of education was registered in three zones, namely Zones 3, 5 and 6. The problem of police harassment is experienced in greater magnitude by the houseless males than the females in each zone of the

city, while the ratio of houseless females surmounted the males in case of hunger in the whole city.

Box 7.3: Problems Daily Faced by Houseless Population

1. "Policemen and incharge of sulabh shochalaya do not allow us to defecate and to bath in sulabh complex" (Sarwari: 85, Rae Bareli).
2. "When we work, some people do not give our wages thinking that since we are poor and living on the footpaths, we can do nothing about that and, therefore, they can exploit us. I am a mason and my daily wage is Rs. 400. Now tell me, in spite of doing so much hard work, why we have to suffer like this?" (Ratan Nath Yadav: 55, Azamgarh).
3. "The unemployment and poverty is eating us away continuously" (Saleem: 56, Etawah).
4. "Night shelter homes remain closed during day time, drinking water is not good, it is full of clay" (Satish: 37, Jalaun).
5. "Earn and eat otherwise sleep with hungry stomach" (Adit Gupta: 32, Fatehpur).
6. "When there is no drinking water, we have to drink water from *Gaddhah*⁷. We have no clothes on our body, our lives are meaningless, and we always live in fear of displacement" (Bhola: 24, Kanpur Nagar).
7. "The problems that we face can't be told in words. Live on the footpath like us just for one day and you will know what our problem is?" (Raja: 70, Varanasi).
8. "Our condition while living on the streets is worse than the dogs" (Razzak: 25, Unnao).

Source: Based on primary survey by the researcher.

Further, barring few exceptions, the houseless males also exceeded females among those suffered by local people torture and violence in the city and the problems of drunkards and lack of education was faced by hundred percent houseless males in the Kanpur city. Nonetheless, the houseless males and females observed greater proportion of the problem of municipal torment in fifty-fifty percent of zones of the city.

7.7.2. Economic problems

The Table 7.10 provides information about the percent distribution of the day to day economic problems faced by the houseless population in Kanpur city. It would be seen from the Table

⁷. Gaddhah is low lying depression filled-up of waste water.

7.10 that among daily economic problems faced by the houseless population, the unemployment, low wages and poor hygiene each affected more than one-fourth proportion of houseless persons; it means that 80.73 percent houseless people were daily confronted with these three economic problems.

Table 7.10: Percent Distribution of Economic Problems Daily Faced by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Economic problems daily faced by houseless population								Total
		Unemployment	Low wages	Poor hygiene	Poverty	Payment	No pension	No income/ money	High price level	
Zone 1	Male	26.82	29.93	24.43	13.74	4.95	-	0.06	0.06	100.00
	Female	28.92	26.51	28.92	14.46	1.20	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	26.92	29.77	24.65	13.78	4.77	-	0.06	0.06	100.00
Zone 2	Male	23.57	28.57	28.21	18.21	1.07	0.36	-	-	100.00
	Female	17.39	17.39	30.43	26.09	8.70	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	23.10	27.72	28.38	18.81	1.65	0.33	-	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	29.21	26.03	26.03	13.65	4.76	0.32	-	-	100.00
	Female	27.40	26.03	26.03	20.55	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	28.87	26.03	26.03	14.95	3.87	0.26	-	-	100.00
Zone 4	Male	31.16	25.35	28.37	12.79	1.63	0.47	0.23	-	100.00
	Female	25.00	15.63	37.50	18.75	-	3.13	-	-	100.00
	Total	30.74	24.68	29.00	13.20	1.52	0.65	0.22	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	32.75	21.75	24.25	12.50	8.75	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	25.00	15.91	29.55	25.00	4.55	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	31.98	21.17	24.77	13.74	8.33	-	-	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	33.79	17.58	26.65	16.21	5.22	0.55	-	-	100.00
	Female	32.61	17.39	28.26	21.74	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	33.66	17.56	26.83	16.83	4.63	0.49	-	-	100.00
Total	Male	28.75	26.62	25.60	14.10	4.67	0.18	0.06	0.03	100.00
	Female	27.24	21.59	29.24	19.93	1.66	0.33	-	-	100.00
	Total	28.63	26.21	25.89	14.57	4.43	0.19	0.05	0.03	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Poverty was also one of the significant economic problems registering 14.57 percent share among all economic problems faced by the houseless population in the study area, subsequently followed by the problem of payment (4.43 percent), no pension (0.19 percent), no money/income (0.05 percent) and high price level (0.03 percent). Moreover, the proportion of houseless males exceeded the houseless females in all the categories of daily economic problems faced by houseless population excluding the poor hygiene and poverty in which the

houseless females have predominance over the houseless males in the Kanpur city (look Box 7.3).

An analysis of the data in Table 7.10 indicates that the problems of unemployment and poor hygiene were registered more or less one-fourth in all the zones of the city, while in the case of low wages, more than one-fourth proportion was identified in Zones 1, 2 and 3, and less than one-fourth in the remaining zones namely Zones 4, 5 and 6. The problem of poverty was greatly faced by the houseless people of Zone 2 (18.81 percent) and lesser proportion by the persons of Zone 4 (13.20 percent). The highest differential range regarding the payment problem was recognised between Zone 5 (8.33 percent) and Zone 2 (1.65 percent). The problem of no pension in four zones (i.e. Zones 2, 3, 4 and 6); no money/income in two zones (viz. Zones 1 and 4) and high price level in Zone 1 were identified in very little proportion (not more than 1 percent in any of the zones). The male-female break-up of the data listed in the Table 7.10 exhibits that the houseless males have been facing the problems of unemployment, low wages, payment and no pension in greater degree in comparison to the houseless females in all the zones of the city barring few exception but the reverse trends have been observed in the categories of poor hygiene and poverty. The problems of no money/income and high price level were hundred percent dominated by the houseless males and no single female was recognised under these categories in the whole city.

7.7.3. Infrastructural problems

The percent distribution of data about the infrastructural problems faced by the houseless population has been given in the Table 7.11. Table 7.11 reveals that more than one-fourth of the houseless persons faced the problem of the lack of shelter daily in their life to sleep, and nearly one-fourth proportion of houseless people confronted daily with the lack of toilet facilities in the city. It means that more than half of the houseless population of Kanpur city has been facing the problems of the lack of shelter and toilets facilities.

Lack of water and no fire ground in winter constituted the infrastructural problems for more than one-third houseless people, followed by the lack of clothes (11.91 percent), no fan in the shelter homes (1.06 percent), lack of lighting facilities (0.17 percent), no space for house and high cost of land (0.04 percent each). The houseless males and females recorded more or less equal proportion in all the categories of infrastructural problems except in the lack of clothes in which the houseless females (17.18 percent) overstepped the houseless males (11.43 percent) (look Box 7.3).

Zone wise examination of the data listed in Table 7.11 depicts that the problem of lack of shelter was most pronounced in Zone 6 (31.69 percent) and least in Zone 2 (23.79 percent), whereas the problem of lack of toilet facilities was witnessed highest in Zone 5 (26.76 percent) and the lowest in Zone 3 (23.33 percent). It means that these two infrastructural problems were confronted daily by nearly one-fourth houseless population in each zone of the city. The maximal and minimal percentages of the problem of lack of water were registered 24.16 in Zone 1 and 18.05 in Zone 5 respectively.

Table 7.11: Percent Distribution of Infrastructural Problems Daily Faced by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Infrastructural problems daily faced by houseless									Total
		Lack of shelter	Lack of toilet facilities	Lack of water	No Fire grounds in winter	Lack of clothes	No fan in shelter homes	Lack of Light facilities	No space for house	High cost of land	
Zone 1	Male	24.71	24.27	24.27	13.81	11.68	1.21	0.05	-	-	100.00
	Female	22.02	22.02	22.02	13.76	20.18	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	24.57	24.16	24.16	13.81	12.10	1.15	0.05	-	-	100.00
Zone 2	Male	24.00	24.00	23.75	16.25	11.75	-	0.25	-	-	100.00
	Female	21.21	18.18	27.27	15.15	18.18	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	23.79	23.56	24.02	16.17	12.24	-	0.23	-	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	27.68	23.88	23.88	10.49	11.38	2.46	0.22	-	-	100.00
	Female	20.95	20.95	20.95	16.19	15.24	-	1.90	1.90	1.90	100.00
	Total	26.40	23.33	23.33	11.57	12.12	1.99	0.54	0.36	0.36	100.00
Zone 4	Male	30.25	25.80	20.46	12.10	11.21	0.18	-	-	-	100.00
	Female	33.33	21.21	15.15	15.15	15.15	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	30.42	25.55	20.17	12.27	11.43	0.17	-	-	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	29.67	26.87	18.22	10.75	11.45	2.80	0.23	-	-	100.00
	Female	29.63	25.93	16.67	12.96	14.81	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	29.67	26.76	18.05	11.00	11.83	2.49	0.21	-	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	31.63	24.82	18.00	14.60	10.22	0.24	0.49	-	-	100.00
	Female	32.14	21.43	19.64	8.93	17.86	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	31.69	24.41	18.20	13.92	11.13	0.21	0.43	-	-	100.00
Total	Male	26.83	24.72	22.49	13.24	11.43	1.16	0.14	-	-	100.00
	Female	25.13	21.79	20.51	13.85	17.18	-	0.51	0.51	0.51	100.00
	Total	26.69	24.47	22.33	13.29	11.91	1.06	0.17	0.04	0.04	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The greatest proportion of the problems of no fire ground in winter and lack of clothes was found 16.17 and 12.24 percent respectively in Zone 2, with their respective lowest figures

being observed 11.00 percent in Zone 5 and 11.13 percent in Zone 6. Zone 3 witnessed the highest proportion of houseless population confronted with the problem of lack of light facilities (0.54 percent), no space for house and high cost of land (0.36 percent each), whereas the problem of having no fan in night shelters is registered highest in Zone 5 (2.48 percent) in the whole city. There has been observed not much difference between males and females in the matter of facing infrastructural problems in the city, however no houseless female has been registered among the people having no fan in shelter homes as well as no houseless male has been identified in the category of having no space for house and high cost of land in any of the zones of the city.

7.7.4. Various socio-economic problems

A very detailed account of percent distribution of various problems faced daily by the houseless population in Kanpur city has been introduced in the Table 7.12. The table reveals that lack of shelter, lack of toilet facilities, unemployment, and lack of water were the main problems with which 44.44 percent houseless population was confronted in their daily life, followed by people having the problem of low wages (9.6 percent), poor hygiene (9.48 percent), no fire grounds in winter (6.14 percent), police harassment (5.99 percent), lack of clothes (5.50 percent), poverty (5.33 percent), municipal torment (3.90 percent), hunger (3.00 percent), local people torture (2.91 percent), payment (1.62 percent), violence (1.32 percent) and others (0.78 percent). Though, the category of others being composed of problems like no fan in shelter homes (0.49 percent), lack of lighting facilities (0.08 percent), no pension (0.07 percent), drunkards (0.04 percent), lack of education (0.03 percent), no space for house, high cost of land and no money/income (0.02 percent each), and high price level (0.01 percent). As far as male and female differences were concerned, the ratio of houseless females markedly crossed that of males only in the four categories namely poor hygiene, lack of clothes, poverty and municipal torment, the share of houseless males being predominant in the city in all other remaining categories.

Further examination of the Table 7.12 shows that the lack of shelter and toilet facilities each involved more than ten percent houseless persons in all the zones of the city. The problem of employment and lack of water was also confronted by more than ten percent houseless people respectively in Zones 1, 4, 5 and 6, and in Zones 1, 2 and 3. The problem of low wages was recorded maximum in Zone 1 (11.33 percent) and minimum in Zone 6 (6.45 percent).

Table 7.12: Percent Distribution of Various Socio-Economic Problems Daily Faced by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Various problems daily faced by houseless															
		Lack of shelter	Lack of toilet facilities	Unemployment	Lack of water	Low wages	Poor hygiene	No fire grounds in winter	Police harassment	Lack of clothes	Poverty	Municipal torment	Hunger	Local people torture	Payment	Violence	Others
Zone 1	Male	11.90	11.69	10.25	11.69	11.44	9.34	6.65	4.9	5.63	5.25	1.73	2.57	2.36	1.89	1.96	0.75
	Female	10.17	10.17	10.17	10.17	9.32	10.17	6.36	4.24	9.32	5.08	3.39	7.63	2.54	0.42	0.85	-
	Total	11.81	11.62	10.24	11.62	11.33	9.38	6.64	4.87	5.82	5.24	1.81	2.83	2.37	1.81	1.90	0.71
Zone 2	Male	11.20	11.20	7.70	11.09	9.33	9.22	7.58	7.70	5.48	5.95	5.13	2.68	4.32	0.35	0.82	0.23
	Female	9.21	7.89	5.26	11.84	5.26	9.21	6.58	6.58	7.89	7.89	5.26	9.21	5.26	2.63	-	-
	Total	11.04	10.93	7.50	11.15	9.00	9.22	7.50	7.61	5.68	6.11	5.14	3.22	4.39	0.54	0.75	0.21
Zone 3	Male	13.26	11.44	9.84	11.44	8.77	8.77	5.03	6.10	5.45	4.60	6.63	1.07	3.32	1.60	1.18	1.5
	Female	9.48	9.48	8.62	9.48	8.19	8.19	7.33	7.33	6.90	6.47	8.62	5.60	1.29	-	0.43	2.59
	Total	12.51	11.05	9.60	11.05	8.65	8.65	5.48	6.34	5.74	4.97	7.03	1.97	2.91	1.29	1.03	1.71
Zone 4	Male	14.01	11.95	11.05	9.48	8.99	10.06	5.61	6.43	5.19	4.53	4.29	3.46	2.80	0.58	1.48	0.33
	Female	12.79	8.14	9.30	5.81	5.81	13.95	5.81	5.81	5.81	6.98	3.49	8.14	5.81	-	1.16	1.16
	Total	13.90	11.67	10.91	9.22	8.76	10.29	5.61	6.37	5.22	4.69	4.22	3.76	3.00	0.54	1.46	0.38
Zone 5	Male	12.50	11.32	12.89	7.68	8.56	9.55	4.53	6.69	4.82	4.92	4.72	3.05	3.84	3.44	0.10	1.38
	Female	12.90	11.29	8.87	7.26	5.65	10.48	5.65	4.84	6.45	8.87	5.65	6.45	4.03	1.61	-	-
	Total	12.54	11.32	12.46	7.63	8.25	9.65	4.65	6.49	5.00	5.35	4.82	3.42	3.86	3.25	0.09	1.23
Zone 6	Male	13.17	10.33	12.46	7.50	6.48	9.83	6.08	8.51	4.26	5.98	6.38	2.94	2.84	1.93	0.71	0.61
	Female	13.85	9.23	11.54	8.46	6.15	10.00	3.85	3.08	7.69	7.69	9.23	5.38	2.31	-	1.54	-
	Total	13.25	10.21	12.35	7.61	6.45	9.85	5.82	7.88	4.66	6.18	6.71	3.22	2.78	1.70	0.81	0.54
Total	Male	12.45	11.47	10.60	10.44	9.81	9.44	6.14	6.06	5.30	5.20	3.69	2.64	2.90	1.72	1.38	0.77
	Female	11.09	9.62	9.28	9.05	7.35	9.95	6.11	5.32	7.58	6.79	6.11	6.79	2.94	0.57	0.68	0.79
	Total	12.33	11.31	10.48	10.32	9.60	9.48	6.14	5.99	5.50	5.33	3.90	3.00	2.91	1.62	1.32	0.78

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Likewise, maximal and minimal values for poor hygiene were observed in Zone 4 (10.29 percent) and Zone 3 (8.65 percent) respectively. In the remaining categories, ranging from no fire grounds in winter to the category of others, the proportion of houseless population observed was limited within eight percent in all the zones of the city. Moreover, no fire grounds in Zone 1 (6.64 percent) and Zone 2 (7.50 percent), police harassment in Zone 2 (7.61 percent), Zone 3 (6.34 percent), Zone 4 (6.37 percent), Zone 5 (6.49 percent) and Zone 6 (7.88 percent), poverty in Zone 2 (6.11 percent) and Zone 6 (6.18 percent) and municipal torment in Zone 3 (7.03 percent) and Zone 6 (6.71 percent) have been observed as the significant problems to the houseless population of the concerned zones. However, the rest of the problems faced by houseless population in each zone of the city were confined around and within five percent.

7.8. Inclement seasons for houseless population

Table 7.13 contains the percent distribution of data about the inclement seasons for houseless population.

Table 7.13: Percent Distribution of Inclement Seasons for Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Inclement seasons for houseless population				
		No inclement season	Inclement seasons	Summer	Winter	Rainy
Zone 1	Male	1.13	98.87	33.29	25.00	40.58
	Female	-	100.00	27.27	29.09	43.64
	Total	1.06	98.94	32.90	25.26	40.78
Zone 2	Male	2.67	97.33	16.00	29.33	52.00
	Female	5.00	95.00	20.00	35.00	40.00
	Total	2.94	97.06	16.47	30.00	50.59
Zone 3	Male	5.75	94.25	24.71	30.46	39.08
	Female	-	100.00	23.33	20.00	56.67
	Total	4.90	95.10	24.51	28.92	41.67
Zone 4	Male	5.13	94.87	23.81	32.97	38.10
	Female	10.00	90.00	25.00	30.00	35.00
	Total	5.46	94.54	23.89	32.76	37.88
Zone 5	Male	1.77	98.23	28.76	25.66	43.81
	Female	-	100.00	20.00	36.00	44.00
	Total	1.59	98.41	27.89	26.69	43.82
Zone 6	Male	6.47	93.53	24.57	27.16	41.81
	Female	2.86	97.14	20.00	34.29	42.86
	Total	5.99	94.01	23.97	28.09	41.95
Total	Male	3.03	96.97	28.04	27.39	41.55
	Female	2.16	97.84	23.24	30.27	44.32
	Total	2.95	97.05	27.60	27.65	41.80

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

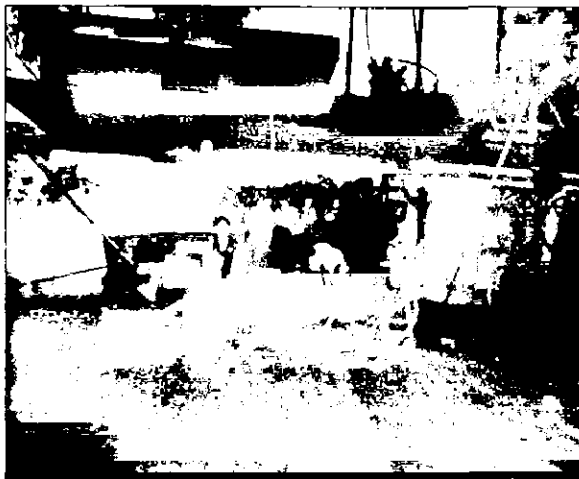
Plates: Inclement Seasons for Houseless Population in Kanpur City



7.14: Rainy Season in Street



7.15: Rainy Season at Mosque



7.16: Rainy Season at Footpath



7.17: Winter Season in Street

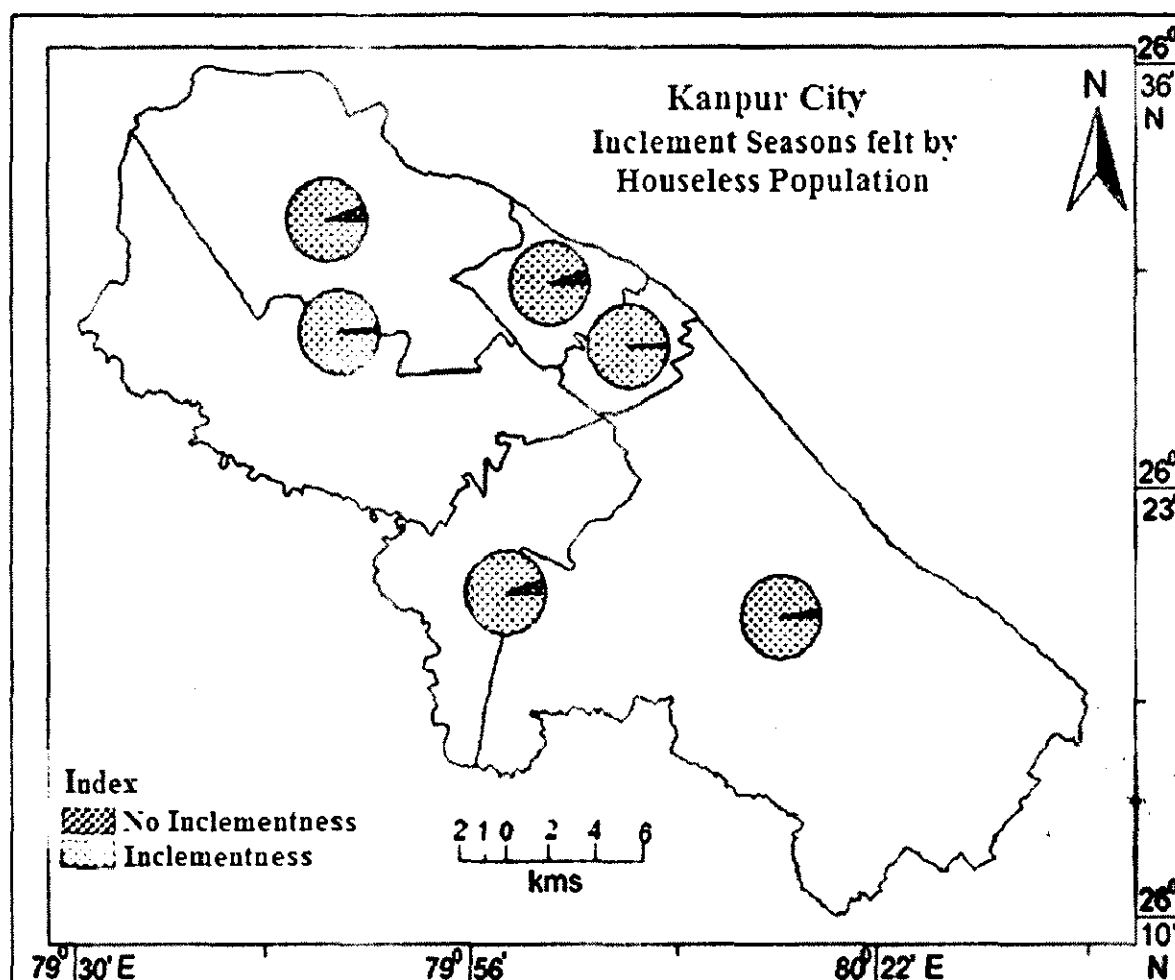


7.18: Summer Season in Market Corridor



7.19: Summer Season in Shelter Home

It will be seen from this table that 97.05 houseless persons felt inclementness while 2.95 percent houseless population has a comfortable life in all the seasons. The proportion of houseless males and females affected by inclement weather has been recorded 96.97 and 97.84 percent respectively (see Plates 7.14 to 7.19).

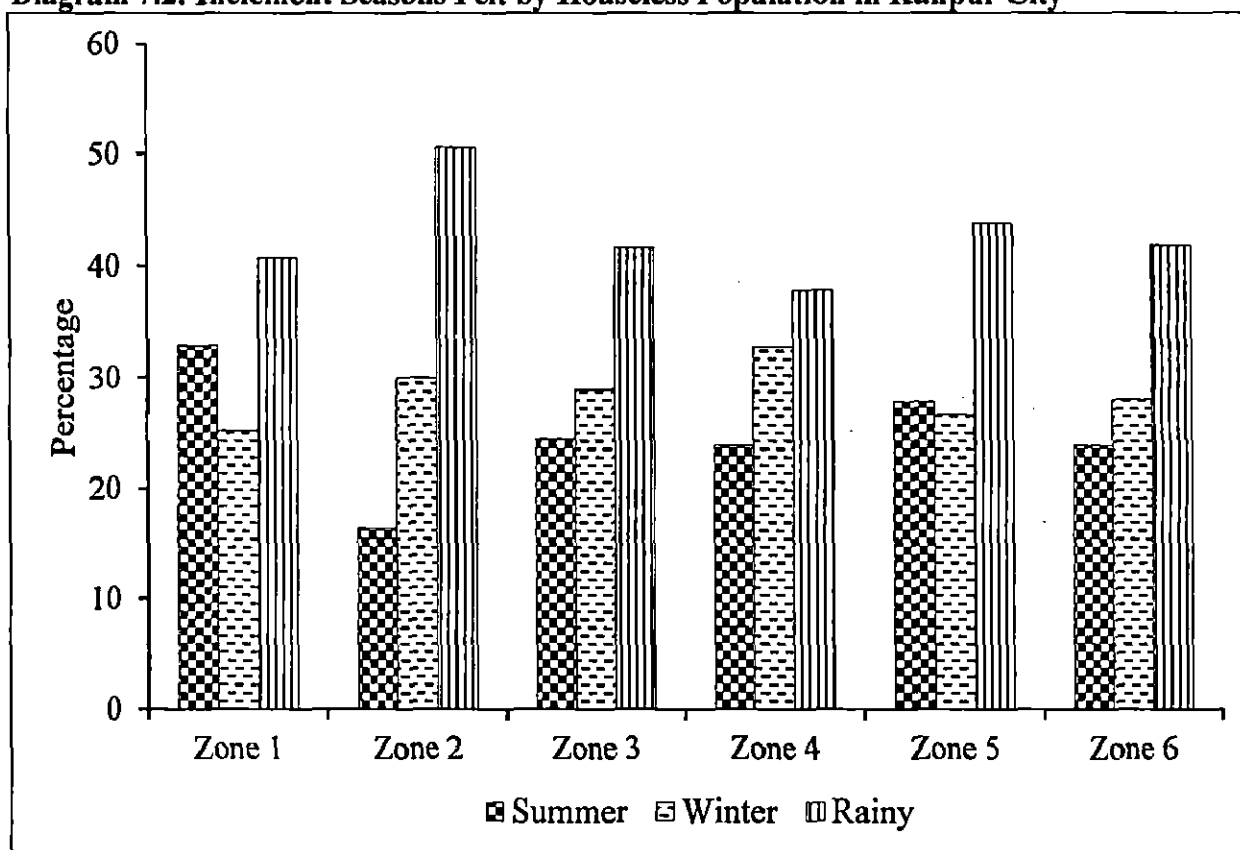


Source: Based on table 7.13. Fig. 7.6

An analysis of the Table 7.13 exhibits that more than 94 percent houseless population in all the zones of the city experienced the inclementness of weather. The highest proportion of houseless persons who suffered the inclement weather was recorded in Zone 5 i.e. 98.41 percent, followed by Zone 1 (98.04 percent), Zone 2 (97.06 percent), Zone 3 (95.10 percent), Zone 4 (94.54 percent), and Zone 6 (94.01 percent) (see Figure 7.6). The rainy season was accounted as the most inclement weather (41.80 percent) by the houseless population, followed by winter season (27.65 percent) and summer season (27.60 percent). In addition to it, houseless females observed intemperate weather conditions in rainy and winter seasons in greater proportion than the houseless males but the reverse condition has been recorded for the summer season (look Box 7.4).

Among the inclement seasons, rainy season has been identified as the most terrible by houseless people in all the zones of the city. In Zone 2, more than half (50.59 percent) of the houseless people experienced inclemency in rainy season which is the highest degree of inclemency suffered by these people in any season throughout the city. Even the least degree of inclemency in rainy season (37.88 percent), which was observed by the houseless people of Zone 4, was higher than the inclemency suffered during summer and winter seasons in all the zones of the Kanpur city. The winters occupied the second place as the intemperate weather in Zones 2, 3, 4 and 6, whereas in Zones 1 and 5, the summer season posed the highest inclemency after the rainy season. More than one-fourth of the houseless population in each zone has been experiencing discomfort during winter season, ranging from the highest (nearly one-third i.e. 32.76 percent) in Zone 4 to the lowest (25.26 percent) in Zone 1. The summer season is the most comfortable season for the houseless population, save for the scorching sunrays, because in summer they can easily live, sleep, bath, drink, move, work, etc anywhere without much harsh intemperate weather conditions. Nevertheless, the highest inclemency in summer has been experienced in Zone 1 (32.90 percent), and the lowest in Zone 2 (16.47 percent) (vide Diagram 7.2).

Diagram 7.2: Inclement Seasons Felt by Houseless Population in Kanpur City



Source: Based on Table 7.13.

The most disagreeable season for homeless people was the monsoons, closely followed by the winters. Many homeless people try to wait out each downpour by crowding into cinema halls buying the cheapest tickets, and watching film after film. If the shower persists beyond midnight, they are left with no option except to stand or squat on their haunches miserably under the shutters of the shops through the rest of the night, all their most precious belongings wrapped in plastic (Mander,2009: 287-308).

Box 7.4: Inclement Seasons Felt by Houseless Population

1. "What are you asking about the season? Sometimes there is winter and sometimes there is summer, in winter we use to pass the whole night sitting around the fire, while there is no option for us during rainy season. Mother left me when I was 3 years old and father left me when I was 5" (Ram Gulam: 45, Fatehpur).
2. "I want to die. I am a heart patient. No season is pleasant and good for me, it is either hot, cold, or rainy" (Raja: 45, Kanpur Nagar).
3. "There is problem in every seasons, either it is summer or winter or rainy" (Johal Lal: 45, Kanpur Nagar).
4. "There is acute problem of drinking water and fan in summer season" (Shyam Lal: 40, Sitapur).

Source: Based on primary survey by the researcher.

The gender-wise distribution of data reveals that the ratio of houseless males who have been feeling the summer as inclement was registered higher than houseless females in four zones viz., Zones 1, 3, 5 and 6, but houseless females exceeded the males in Zones 2 and 4. On the other hand, the houseless females have predominance over the males in the matter of facing inclemency in Zones 1, 2, 5 and 6 during winters and in Zones 1, 3, 5 and 6 during rainy season, whereas reverse conditions prevailed in the remaining two zones.

7.9. Expressive ties for houseless population

The data about the expressive ties felt by the houseless population has been presented in the Table 7.14. The table depicts that nearly one-fifth (19.56 percent) houseless population was socially disaffiliated while more than four-fifth (80.44 percent) was socially affiliated in the city. Among the socially affiliated houseless population, one-third (33.74 percent) and one-fourth (25.66 percent) houseless people have their expressive ties with their siblings/wives and parents respectively, subsequently followed by those having ties with relatives (11.37 percent),

close non-local friends (4.73 percent), close local friends (3.74 percent) and group of people (1.21 percent). The proportion of houseless males was greater than the females in all types of social affiliation excluding the categories of relatives and close local friends.

Table 7.14 shows that about one-fifth proportion of houseless population was socially disaffiliated in Zone 1 (21.17 percent), Zone 6 (20.09 percent), and Zone 5 (19.05 percent) which is much higher in comparison with such people in other zones. The least share of socially disaffiliated houseless people was identified in Zone 3 (4.58 percent) (see Figure 7.7).

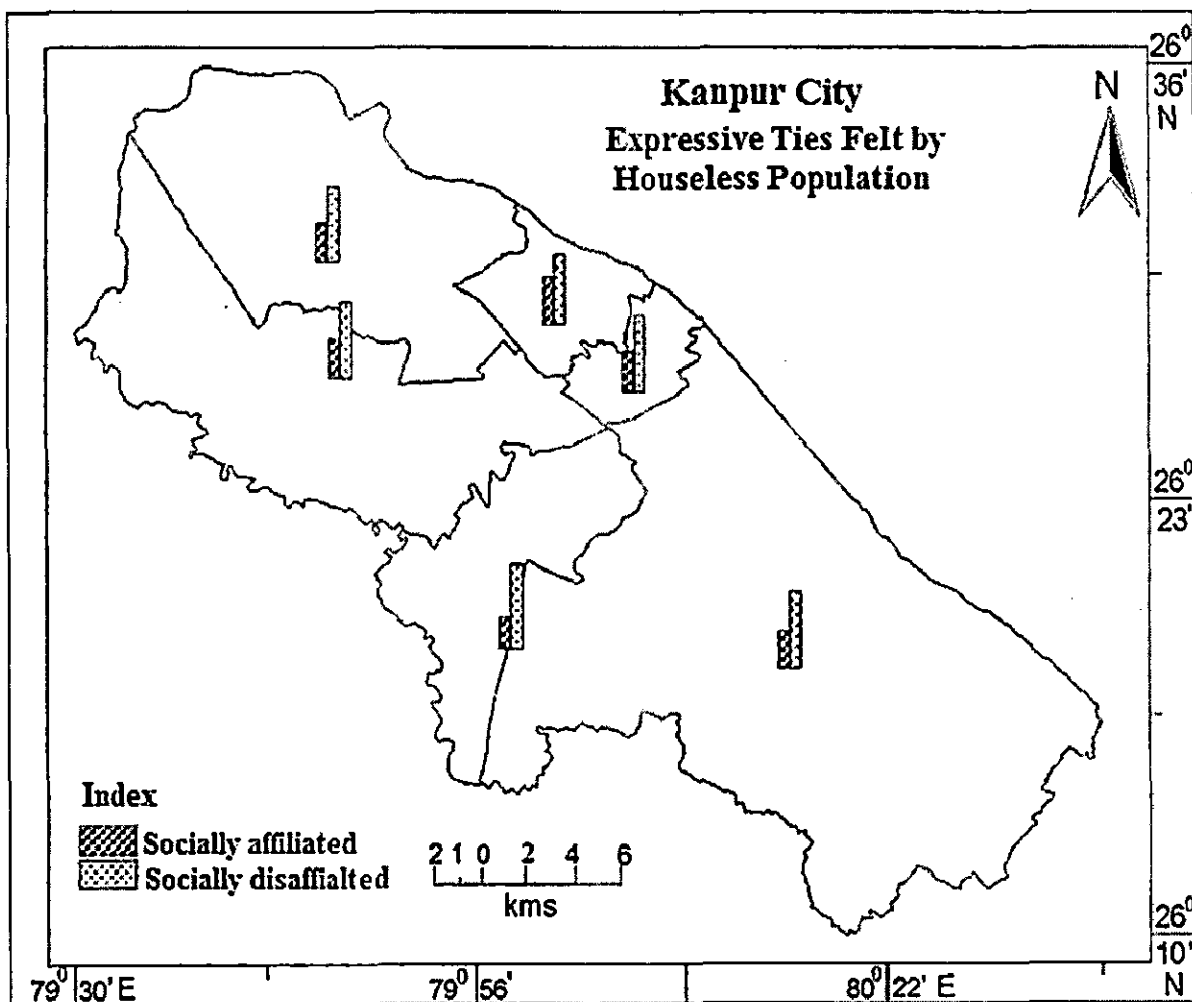
Table 7.14: Percent Distribution of Expressive Ties Felt by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Expressive ties							
		Socially disaffiliated	Socially affiliated	Siblings/wives	Parents	Relatives	Close non- local friends	Close local friends	Group of people
Zone 1	Male	20.31	79.69	32.53	30.26	5.68	6.68	3.13	1.42
	Female	42.86	57.14	28.57	7.14	14.29	-	7.14	-
	Total	21.17	78.83	32.38	29.37	6.01	6.42	3.28	1.37
Zone 2	Male	12.78	87.22	39.10	33.08	12.03	1.50	-	1.50
	Female	63.64	36.36	18.18	9.09	-	-	9.09	-
	Total	16.67	83.33	37.50	31.25	11.11	1.39	0.69	1.39
Zone 3	Male	4.76	95.24	31.90	22.86	20.00	7.62	8.10	4.76
	Female	3.33	96.67	56.67	6.67	20.00	10.00	3.33	-
	Total	4.58	95.42	35.00	20.83	20.00	7.92	7.50	4.17
Zone 4	Male	29.65	70.35	32.30	22.12	11.95	1.33	2.65	-
	Female	61.54	38.46	7.69	-	23.08	7.69	-	-
	Total	31.38	68.62	30.96	20.92	12.55	1.67	2.51	-
Zone 5	Male	16.82	83.18	40.65	28.97	10.28	1.40	1.87	-
	Female	47.06	52.94	29.41	5.88	17.65	-	-	-
	Total	19.05	80.95	39.83	27.27	10.82	1.30	1.73	-
Zone 6	Male	18.75	81.25	31.73	20.67	18.27	4.81	5.77	-
	Female	30.77	69.23	26.92	3.85	23.08	3.85	11.54	-
	Total	20.09	79.91	31.20	18.80	18.80	4.70	6.41	-
Total	Male	18.41	81.59	33.86	27.14	10.91	4.78	3.60	1.30
	Female	35.20	64.80	32.00	5.60	17.60	4.00	5.60	-
	Total	19.56	80.44	33.74	25.66	11.37	4.73	3.74	1.21

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Among the socially affiliated, the majority of houseless population was affiliated with their siblings/wives; as nearly four-fifth of them in Zone 5 and 30.96 percent in Zone 4 have expressive ties with their siblings/wives. It means that nearly one-third of the houseless persons in each zone have their social connections with the siblings/wives. The second largest

proportion of the houseless people was found affiliated with their parents, varying from the highest 31.25 percent in Zone 2 to the lowest 18.80 percent in Zone 6. The highest social expressive ties with relatives were witnessed in Zone 3 where one-fifth of the houseless people were socially affiliated with their relatives, while the lowest fraction (6.01 percent) in this category was registered in Zone 1. There has been found a significant proportion of houseless people having social relationships with their close non-local friends⁸ ranging from maximum 7.92 percent in Zone 3 to minimum 1.30 percent in Zone 5. The social affiliation with close local friends and group of people was again observed in greater proportions in Zone 3 in comparison to other zones of the city viz. 7.50 and 4.17 percent respectively.



Source: Based on table 7.14.

Fig. 7.7

The male-female break-up of the data about the expressive ties felt by houseless population shows that barring few exceptions, the ratio of houseless males in the categories of expressive ties with siblings/wives, parents, close non-local friends and group of people

⁸. Close non-local friends were those friends who were living at the native places of the houseless people.

exceeded that of females, while the opposite trend has been registered in the case of relatives and close local friends⁹. Moreover, no houseless female has been found in the category of having expressive ties with the group of people in which the males also registered their presence only in three zones namely Zones 1, 2 and 3.

7.10. Need of security felt by houseless population

The percent distribution of data about need of security felt by the houseless population has been inserted in the table 7.15.

Table 7.15: Percent Distribution of Need of Security Felt by Houseless Population

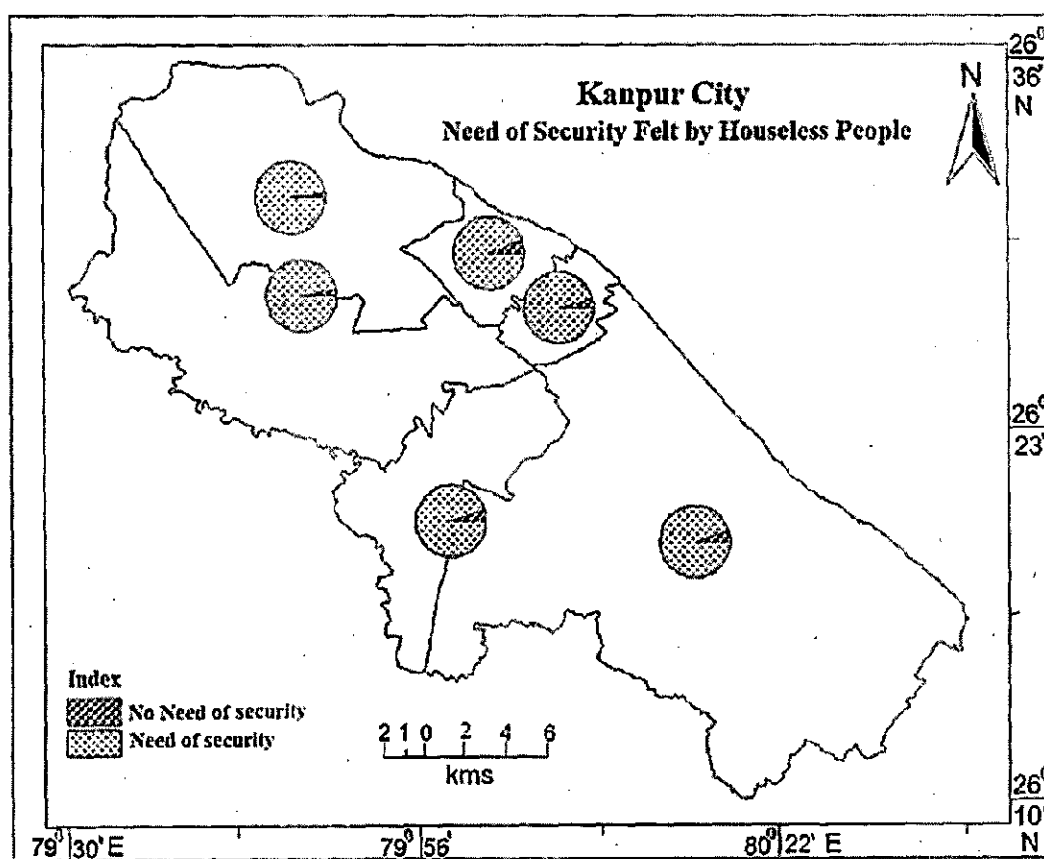
Zones	Male/ Female	Need of Security									
		No need of security	Need of security	Public harassment	Police chasing	Municipal torment	Traffic	Aggression	Noise	Disputes	A to Z
Zone 1	Male	3.83	96.17	24.68	26.76	9.03	12.62	7.75	9.11	5.67	0.56
	Female	12.28	87.72	21.05	26.32	21.05	7.02	3.51	3.51	5.26	-
	Total	4.20	95.80	24.52	26.74	9.55	12.38	7.56	8.86	5.65	0.54
Zone 2	Male	4.68	95.32	22.13	22.98	22.13	11.91	8.94	4.26	2.98	-
	Female	4.76	95.24	23.81	14.29	19.05	9.52	19.05	4.76	4.76	-
	Total	4.69	95.31	22.27	22.27	21.88	11.72	9.77	4.30	3.13	-
Zone 3	Male	5.38	94.62	21.15	26.92	22.31	12.31	5.38	4.62	1.54	0.38
	Female	1.82	98.18	29.09	7.27	10.91	1.82	23.64	23.64	1.82	-
	Total	4.76	95.24	22.54	23.49	20.32	10.48	8.57	7.94	1.59	0.32
Zone 4	Male	5.35	94.65	25.61	22.94	15.81	12.69	8.02	6.01	2.67	0.89
	Female	8.82	91.18	20.59	17.65	20.59	8.82	14.71	8.82	-	-
	Total	5.59	94.41	25.26	22.57	16.15	12.42	8.49	6.21	2.48	0.83
Zone 5	Male	2.65	97.35	25.99	22.55	16.98	11.94	10.88	6.90	0.80	1.33
	Female	2.63	97.37	31.58	10.53	13.16	15.79	18.42	5.26	-	2.63
	Total	2.65	97.35	26.51	21.45	16.63	12.29	11.57	6.75	0.72	1.45
Zone 6	Male	1.53	98.47	23.14	24.02	17.69	10.26	9.83	7.21	3.28	3.06
	Female	3.17	96.83	23.81	17.46	23.81	9.52	12.70	4.76	1.59	3.17
	Total	1.73	98.27	23.22	23.22	18.43	10.17	10.17	6.91	3.07	3.07
Total	Male	3.76	96.24	24.25	24.98	14.48	12.11	8.38	7.32	3.70	1.02
	Female	5.60	94.40	25.00	16.04	18.28	8.21	14.55	8.96	2.24	1.12
	Total	3.91	96.09	24.31	24.25	14.79	11.79	8.88	7.46	3.58	1.03

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

It would be seen from the table that a huge proportion (96.09 percent) of houseless population needs security from different kinds of humiliations and disturbances in their life (see Plates 7.20 to 7.24), and only a very small fraction of houseless population (3.91 percent) did not reported for this need. The need for security was demanded more by houseless males

⁹. Close local friends were those who were living in the Kanpur city.

(96.24 percent) than the females (94.40 percent), because a larger ratio of houseless males was found living as individuals rather than with families while the houseless females were identified more either as the members of the houseless families or mental. Zone wise analysis reveals that the houseless population who didn't feel the need for security was limited within the proportion of five percent in all the zones of the city excluding Zone 4 wherein they recorded 5.59 percent, whereas even the lowest proportion of houseless people who expressed the need for security was found as high as 94.41 percent (Zone 4), their highest limit having reached 98.27 percent (Zone 6), who need security from public harassment, police chasing, municipal torment, traffic, aggression, noise, disputes and A to Z society (see Figure 7.8).



Source: Based on table 7.15.

Fig. 7.8

As can be seen from the Table 7.15, nearly one-fourth of the houseless persons who felt the need for security are in need of protection each from the public harassment and police chasing, followed by the municipal torment (14.79 percent), traffic (11.79 percent), aggression (8.88 percent), noise (7.46 percent), disputes (3.58 percent) and A to Z society (1.03 percent).

Plates: Need of Security Felt by Houseless Population in Kanpur City



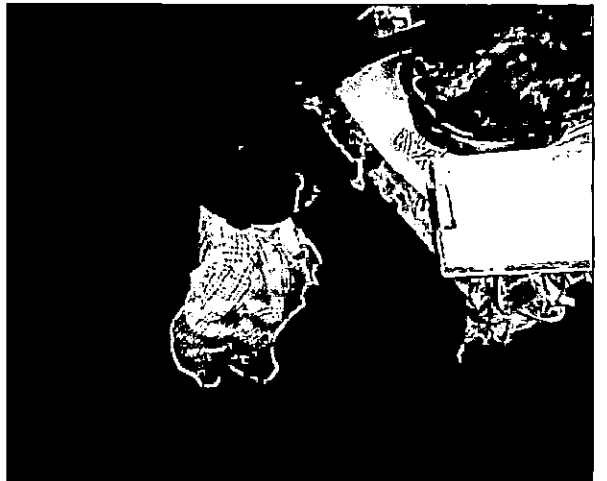
7.20: Exploitation



7.21: Municipal Torment



7.22: Public Harassment



7.23: Dispute



7.24: Police Brutality

The houseless males recorded higher ratio only in the categories of the need for security from police chasing, traffic and disputes, the houseless females whereas in the remaining categories, the need for security was felt more by the females (look Box 7.5).

Box 7.5: Need of Security Felt by Houseless Population

1. "We earn our means of livelihood from the waste materials which too we cannot even see, touch, or smell but A To Z society does not allow us to collect the garbage" (Kishan: 45, Kanpur Dehat).
2. "People and police pick us, either forcefully or by injecting Anesthesia, from night shelters to wring out our blood; that is why we are not living in the night shelters" (Dinesh: 35, Sitapur).
3. "Rag-pickers, smugglers, and beggars etc. use to steal all our belongings like pots, clothes, blankets, etc." (Ramdas: 55, Sultanpur).
4. "Kanpur is the city of thieves and rogues. They use to steal our luggage from huts and threat us. It is not the time for good people to live in the city" (Vishanu: 58, Pune).
5. "People from Municipality destroyed our home and also took away our entire luggage" (Pappu: 42, Kanpur Nagar).
6. "Policemen use to capture us without any reason and say that we would be released only if we give them money" (Manoj: 22, Hardoi).

Source: Based on primary survey by the researcher.

Table 7.15 discloses the fact that the largest proportion of houseless people who demanded security from public harassment was found in Zone 4 (25.26 percent) and Zone 5 (26.51 percent) but the security from the police chasing was highly required by the houseless people of Zone 1 (26.74 percent) and Zone 3 (23.49 percent), and the need for security against both the public harassment and police chasing was greatly felt among the houseless population of Zone 2 (22.27 percent) and Zone 6 (23.22 percent). More or less one-fourth houseless population in each zone of the city felt the need for security from the unwanted things as listed in the Table 7.15. A significant fraction of houseless people also wants to be protected from the municipal torment as more than one-fifth houseless persons need protection against the municipal torment in Zones 2 and 3, followed by Zone 6 (18.43 percent), Zone 5 (16.63 percent), Zone 4 (16.15 percent) and Zone 1 (9.55 percent). The percentage values of houseless persons who want to get rid of the threat posed by the traffic, were also registered

more than one-tenth in all the zones of the city but the need for security against the aggression felt by houseless population was accounted more than one-tenth only in two zones namely Zones 5 and 6.

The noise was also a major irritating factor for the houseless people, for the ratio of the houseless people who need to be safeguarded from the problem of noise varied from the maximum 8.86 percent in Zone 1 to the minimum 4.30 percent in Zone 2. The houseless people also got disturbed by the various disputes and quarrels that used to occur in the streets, markets, residential areas, etc. The maximum proportion of houseless people suffering from such disputes was reported in the Zone 1 (5.65 percent), and minimum in Zone 5 (0.72 percent). The A to Z society was also registered as one of the disturbing agent for the houseless people in Kanpur city because some fraction of houseless people (3.03 percent) was engaged in rag picking activity to earn their means of livelihood from the places where the waste material used to be dumped. Therefore, these houseless people were captured and punished, all the waste material collected by them being snatched by A to Z society because A to Z Company has taken the tender to collect the waste material of the city. The need of security from the A to Z society was reported highest in Zone 6.

The houseless females recorded greater degree of the need to be safeguarded from the harassment than the houseless males in the city excluding Zones of 1 and 4, while, for the security from police chasing, houseless females accounted lower percental values in each zone than the houseless males. Houseless males demanded more security against the municipal torment than the females in Zones 2, 3 and 5 but reverse condition has prevailed in Zones 1, 4 and 6. The ratio of houseless males surmounted that of females in the case of need for security from the traffic in all the zones except in Zone 5, whereas the females required more caution from the aggression in comparison to the males in the whole city except in Zone 1. The houseless females largely suffered from the noise that is why they need safety from it in Zones 2, 3, 4 and 5 whereas houseless males need only in the Zones 1 and 6. In Zones 1 and 6, the share of houseless males slightly run over that of females in demanding need for security from the disputes, whereas in Zones 2 and 3, females overstepped the males for the same, while Zones 4 and 5 reported no houseless female in need of security from the disputes, In the case of security from A to Z society, the houseless females demanded it only in Zones 5 and 6 whereas in other remaining zones, houseless males witnessed predominance over females.

7.11. Nature of behaviour of general people towards houseless population

Table 7.16 presents data regarding the nature of behaviour of the people towards the houseless population as felt by them in the Kanpur city. An examination of the data given in Table 7.16 reveals that most of the general population¹⁰ of the city behaved badly with the houseless persons instead having a sympathetic attitude towards them which they deserve being rough sleepers. About three-fourth (74.77 percent) proportion of houseless people has reported very ill-treatment by the general population while only one-fourth (25.23 percent) houseless persons reported to be treated well.

Table 7.16: Percent Distribution of Nature of Behaviour of the General Population for Houseless Population

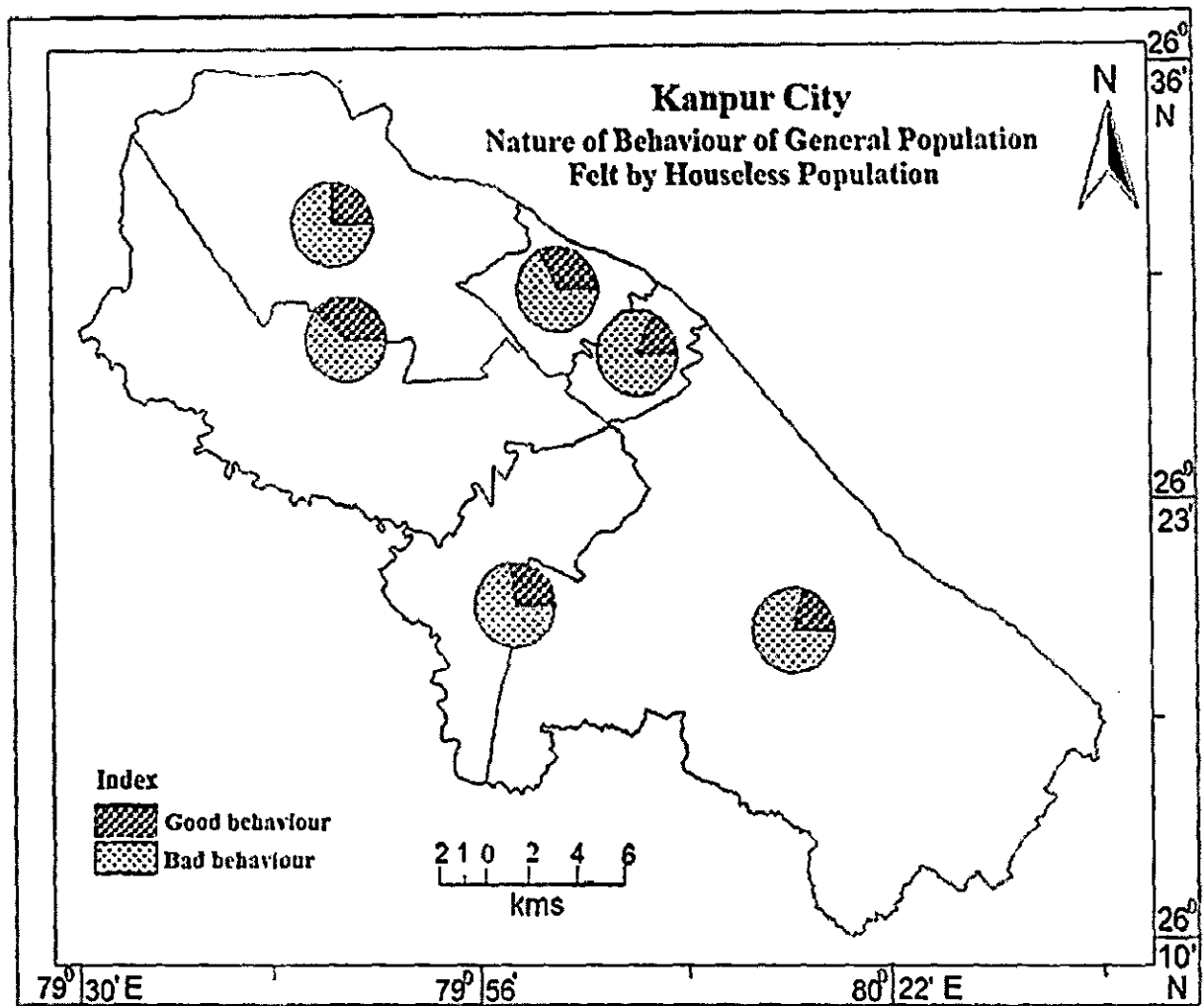
Zones	Male/ Female	Behaviour		People of negative behaviour for houseless				
		Good	Bad	Police	Officers	Gangs	Local people	Total
Zone 1	Male	19.51	80.49	45.79	24.80	13.61	15.80	100.00
	Female	-	100.00	46.94	20.41	14.29	18.37	100.00
	Total	18.67	81.33	45.85	24.56	13.65	15.94	100.00
Zone 2	Male	22.33	77.67	44.19	30.81	11.63	13.37	100.00
	Female	10.00	90.00	43.75	18.75	25.00	12.50	100.00
	Total	21.24	78.76	44.15	29.79	12.77	13.30	100.00
Zone 3	Male	30.33	69.67	40.32	32.26	17.74	9.68	100.00
	Female	9.09	90.91	40.48	16.67	38.10	4.76	100.00
	Total	27.08	72.92	40.35	29.39	21.49	8.77	100.00
Zone 4	Male	26.78	73.22	47.74	24.44	18.80	9.02	100.00
	Female	67.86	32.14	32.00	32.00	20.00	16.00	100.00
	Total	32.23	67.77	46.39	25.09	18.90	9.62	100.00
Zone 5	Male	36.94	63.06	50.28	20.34	13.56	15.82	100.00
	Female	56.25	43.75	35.29	29.41	17.65	17.65	100.00
	Total	38.73	61.27	48.97	21.13	13.92	15.98	100.00
Zone 6	Male	25.00	75.00	46.06	25.20	14.57	14.17	100.00
	Female	28.57	71.43	35.71	42.86	10.71	10.71	100.00
	Total	25.38	74.62	45.04	26.95	14.18	13.83	100.00
Total	Male	24.73	75.27	45.84	25.65	14.67	13.84	100.00
	Female	30.58	69.42	40.11	25.42	21.47	12.99	100.00
	Total	25.23	74.77	45.35	25.63	15.25	13.77	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The ratio of houseless males who met ill-treatment by general population is higher than the females. The inauspicious behaviour of the general population was reported highest in Zone 1 (81.33 percent) and the lowest in Zone 5 (61.27 percent). It means that in each zone of

¹⁰. General population includes all kinds of population s in the Kanpur city excluding the houseless people.

the city, more than two-third proportion of houseless persons faced ill-treatment barring the Zone 5 which recorded the lowest value 61.27. In other words, Zone 5 witnessed highest ratio of houseless people who experienced good treatment by the general population in comparison the remaining zones. In Zones 1, 2 and 3, houseless females reported to have faced the bad attitude of general population in a higher degree than the males and vice versa in the remaining zones namely Zones 4, 5 and 6 (see Figure 7.9).



Source: Based on table 7.16.

Fig. 7.9

Among the ill-treated houseless population, the largest chunk faced problems from the policemen (45.35 percent) while more than one-fourth proportion (25.63 percent) of houseless population was confronted with the negative behaviour of various offices (municipal people, leaders, transport officers, shelter in-charges, park security men, bus stands & railway station security men, etc.). The remaining houseless population (29.02 percent) is prostrated to the negative behaviour of various gangs¹¹ (15.25 percent) and local people (13.77 percent). The

¹¹. Gang is an informal association of criminals.

houseless males have experienced greater degree of negative behaviour by policemen, officers and local people than the houseless females but the females have the negative behaviour of gangs in higher proportion than the males in the city (look Box 7.6).

Box 7.6: Behaviour of General People towards Houseless Population

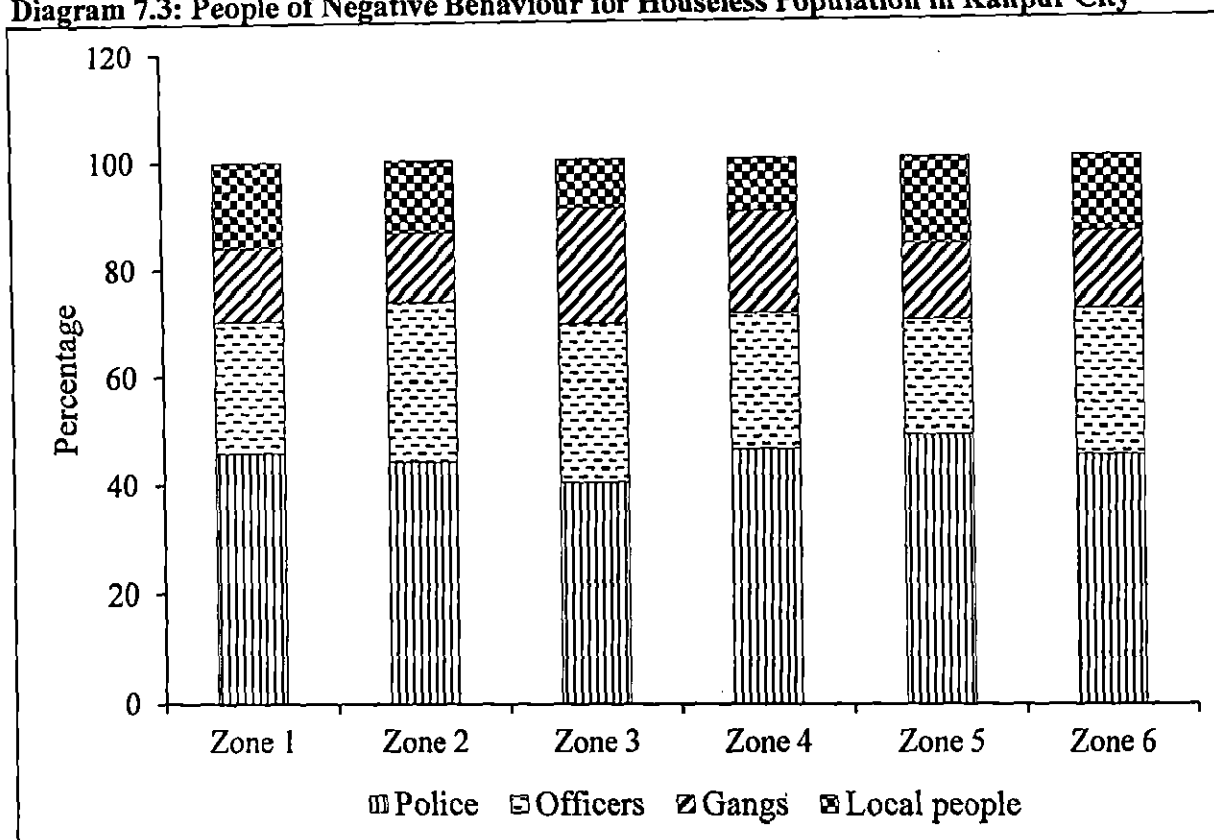
1. "Please help me in getting my daughter back who is forcefully kept by a local person in whom house she used to work as maid servant" (Zumman: 37, Sitapur).
2. "I had a small hut here which has been taken away from me. When I denied removing my hut, they beat me so hard that there has continuously been pain in my legs. I know those people, they are still living here" (Ganesh: 53, Faizabad).
3. "Sorrow and suffering all around, we don't know what happiness is and where it is found!" (Orilal: 70, Odhisha).
4. "I need employment but police usually is disturbing me here" (Shiv Kumar: 20, Kanpur Nagar).

Source: Based on primary survey by the researcher.

The Table 7.16 unfolds the fact that the highest degree of negative behaviour by the policemen is faced by the houseless people in Zone 5 (48.97 percent) and least in Zone 3 (40.35 percent), but even this lowest value is higher than those registered for all other kinds of negative behaviour faced by the houseless population in the study area. It implies the negative behaviour of the police is reported by more than forty percent houseless people in all the zones of the city. A significant proportion of houseless people also witnessed negative behaviour by the officers as they enforced their negative attitude upon nearly one-fourth houseless persons in each zone excluding Zone 5 where only a little more than one-fifth (21.13 percent) of the houseless people were affected by them. The negative behavior by the gangs was witnessed highest (21.49 percent) i.e. more than one-fifth in Zone 3, whereas in other zones, more than ten percent houseless people were found to be affected by their negative behaviour. The houseless population also encountered with the negative attitude of the local people in the city, with more than ten percent houseless persons in the Zones 1, 2, 5 and 6 being its victims while in Zones 3 and 4, it is registered 8.77 and 9.62 percent respectively (vide Diagram 7.3).

The data given in Table 7.16 also brings into light the fact that the ratio of houseless males exceeded the houseless females in facing the negative behaviour of police in four zones namely Zones 2, 4, 5 and 6, but in Zones 1 and 3 females are more the victims in this case.

Diagram 7.3: People of Negative Behaviour for Houseless Population in Kanpur City



Source: Based on Table 7.16.

The houseless males in Zones 1, 2 and 3, and the houseless females in Zones 4, 5 and 6 have experienced the greater degree of negative attitude of officers. Excluding Zone 6, the houseless females in all the zones of the city have predominant share among the houseless population suffering from the negative behaviour of gangs in comparison to the males. However, in three zones namely Zones 2, 3 and 6, houseless males are more victims of negative behaviour of local people but the reverse condition has prevailed in the remaining zones i.e. Zones 1, 4 and 5.

7.12. Experiences felt by houseless population at different occasions

Table 7.17 contains data about the various occasions experienced by the houseless population. As can be seen from the table, nearly one-third and two-third houseless population has good and bad experiences respectively at the occasions of VIP visits, national festivals (Independence Day, Republic Day, Environment Day, Earth Day etc.), and various functions/ceremonies (marriages, religious festivals, various campaigns, etc.). The respective figures for houseless males are 33.01 and 66.99 percent, and 29.25 and 70.75 percent for houseless females. The largest section of houseless population having bad experience at the various occasions as mentioned above lies in Zone 1, followed by Zone 2 (72.57 percent),

Zone 4 (59.89 percent), Zone 6 (58.88 percent), Zone 3 (57.04 percent), and Zone 5 (49.71 percent), whereas the reverse trends have been followed in these zones regarding the good experience at the various occasions (see Figure 7.10).

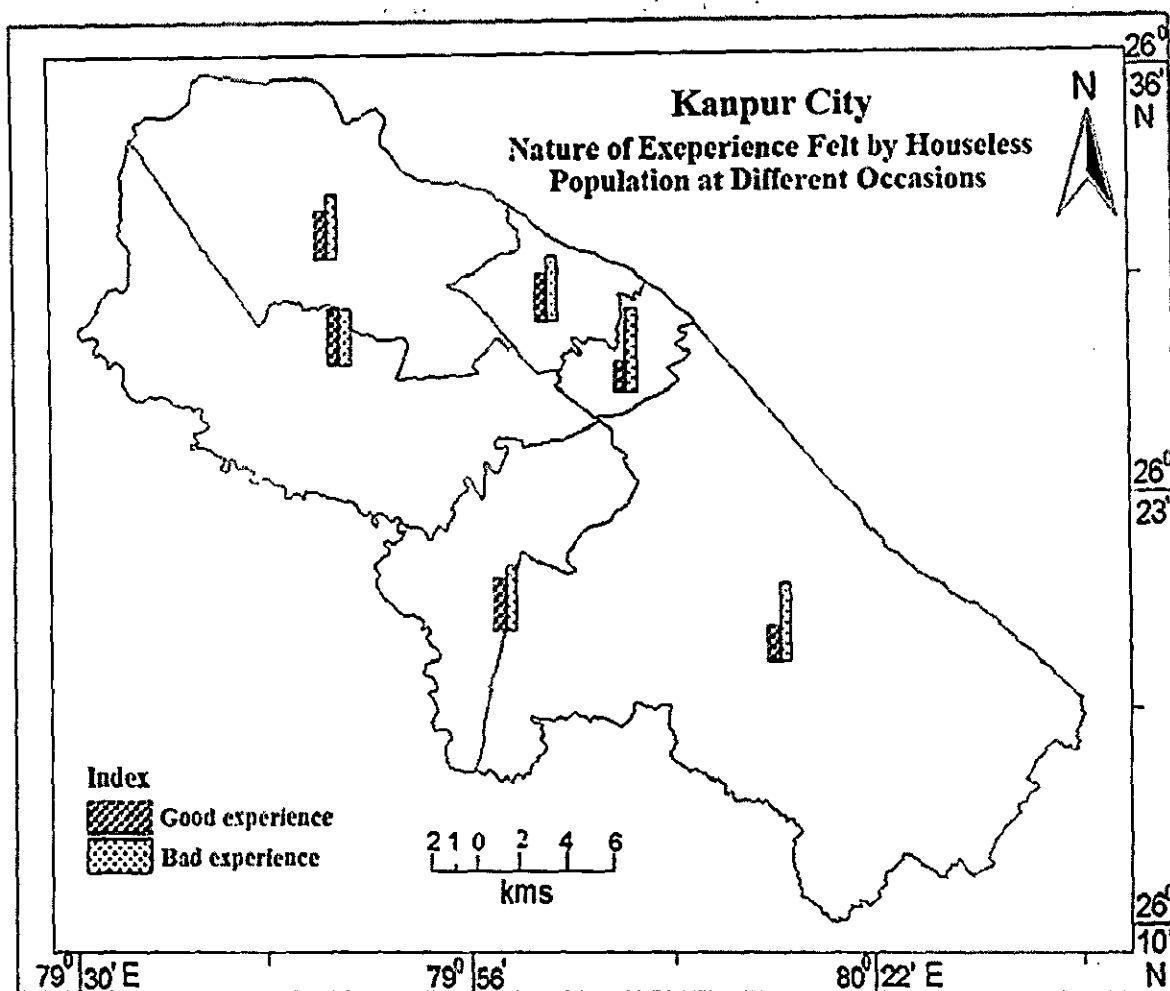
Table 7.17: Percent Distribution of Experiences Felt by Houseless Population at Different Occasions

Zones	Male/ Female	Experiences		Bad Experience at the Occasions			
		Good	Bad	VIP visits	National festivals	Functions/ ceremonies	Total
Zone 1	Male	21.01	78.99	58.99	30.39	10.62	100.00
	Female	8.33	91.67	53.57	42.86	3.57	100.00
	Total	20.47	79.53	58.75	30.94	10.31	100.00
Zone 2	Male	28.16	71.84	51.15	37.40	11.45	100.00
	Female	20.00	80.00	53.33	40.00	6.67	100.00
	Total	27.43	72.57	51.37	37.67	10.95	100.00
Zone 3	Male	46.90	53.10	51.79	21.43	26.79	100.00
	Female	22.73	77.27	37.78	28.89	33.33	100.00
	Total	42.96	57.04	47.77	23.57	28.66	100.00
Zone 4	Male	40.00	60.00	53.81	27.41	18.78	100.00
	Female	41.67	58.33	53.85	23.08	23.08	100.00
	Total	40.11	59.89	53.81	27.14	19.05	100.00
Zone 5	Male	49.04	50.96	59.38	26.56	14.06	100.00
	Female	62.50	37.50	50.00	33.33	16.67	100.00
	Total	50.29	49.71	58.57	27.14	14.29	100.00
Zone 6	Male	42.29	57.71	50.65	29.22	20.13	100.00
	Female	31.82	68.18	38.10	42.86	19.05	100.00
	Total	41.12	58.88	49.14	30.86	20.00	100.00
Total	Male	33.01	66.99	55.92	29.39	14.69	100.00
	Female	29.25	70.75	45.52	35.07	19.40	100.00
	Total	32.72	67.28	54.97	29.90	15.12	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The ratio of houseless males having good experience at such occasions has been identified higher than the females in Zones 1, 2, 3 and 6, whereas in Zones 4 and 5, the houseless females exceeded males in the said category. In the other words, the ratio of houseless females in Zones 1, 2, 3 and 6 surmounted the houseless males regarding the bad experiences but opposite trend has been followed in Zones 4 and 5.

A further analysis of Table 7.17 makes it evident that among houseless population that experienced these various occasions in the Kanpur city as bad, more than half (54.97 percent) has been badly affected by the various VIP visits, followed by those affected by national festivals (29.90 percent) and various functions/ceremonies (15.12 percent).



Source: Based on table 7.17.

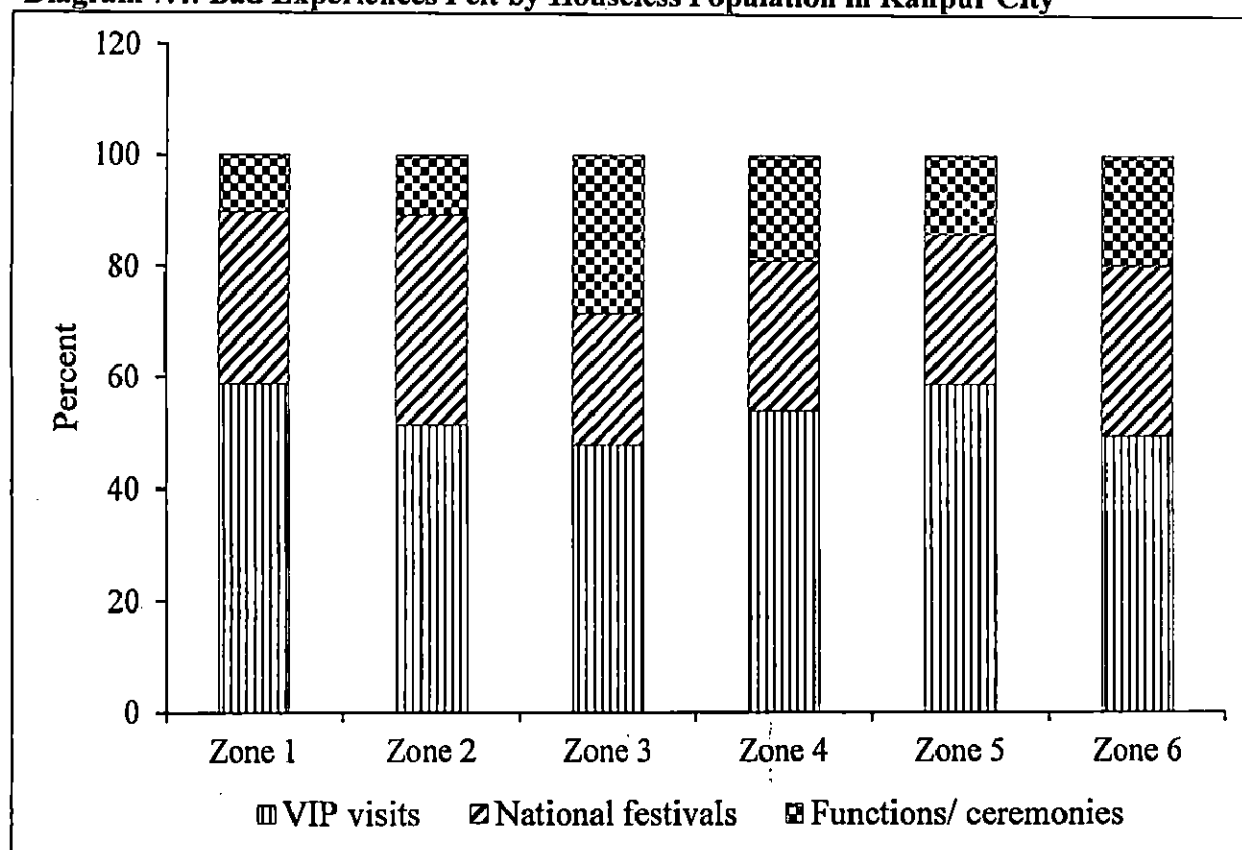
Fig. 7.10

Moreover, the houseless females fall more in the category of bad experiences at the time of national festivals (35.07 percent) and functions/ceremonies (19.40 percent) than the males, while the ratio of houseless males is higher in case of bad experiences at the time of VIP visits (55.92 percent) than the females (45.52 percent). The highest values for having bad experience at the occasion of VIP visits and national festivals occurred respectively in Zone 1 (58.75 percent) and Zone 2 (37.67 percent) while lowest values for the same (47.77 and 23.57 percent respectively) occurred in Zone 3 that also recorded the maximum degree of bad experiences among the houseless population (28.66 percent) at the time of functions/ceremonies (vide Diagram 7.4).

The male-female break-up data shows that the houseless male population is more affected by the VIP visits than the houseless female population in four zones i.e. Zones 1, 3, 5 and 6 while in Zones 2 and 4, the ratio of houseless females overstepped the houseless males in the said category. Regarding the bad experiences of houseless population at the occasion of

National festivals, the proportion of houseless females surmounted the houseless males in all the zones except in Zone 4 wherein the ration of males exceeded the females.

Diagram 7.4: Bad Experiences Felt by Houseless Population in Kanpur City



Source: Based on Table 7.17.

Again the ratio of houseless females over-crossed the houseless males in having bad experience at the time of functions/ceremonies in four zones namely Zones 3, 4, 5 and 6 and in remaining zones i.e. Zones 1 and 2, the share of houseless males dominated the females.

References:

- Mander, H., 2009. Living rough, surviving city streets: a study of the homeless populations in Delhi, Chennai, Patna and Madurai. In: Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation, Govt., of India and United Nations Development Programme, ed. India: Urban Poverty Report 2009, New Delhi: Oxford University Press, pp.287-308.
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Chapter 8

Accessibility of Houseless Population in Infrastructure Facilities

Infrastructure facilities refer to the basic physical structure which is needed for the well functioning of a sound society. It may be defined as the set of inter-connected, inter-dependent and inter-related structural phenomena which constitute a systematic framework supporting an entire structure of development. It is a very significant term because it is used to judge the level of development of any region of the country or any section of the society. The elements of infrastructure facilities are inexhaustible like roads, bridges, water supply, sewer lines, electricity, schools, hospitals, telecommunications, parks, public pools, spas, museums, theaters, hotels, shelter, recreation, parcel of land, etc. Moreover, the possession of consumer assets like, television, telephones, mobiles, cycles, scooters, motor cycles, radios, watches, stoves, washing machine, iron, gas cylinders, fans, air conditioning, warmers, etc. gives a rough indication of the level of socio-economic status of a population. It also provides some information on household decisions and tastes towards modernity. The availability of decent and affordable housing and the accessibility of modern household amenities and assets is a vital aspect of human well-being. It is usually conceived that housing conditions, availability of drinking water, sanitation, electricity, medical care, hygiene, offering a sense of privacy, safety and dignity, etc. play a significant role in the life of people. In fact, the majority of the urban poor live in low-quality, overcrowded, self-made huts or shelters that are only marginally served by the public utilities taken for granted by better-off groups such as drinking water facility, adequate resources for disposal of excreta and other wastes, education, health services and subsidised food markets, etc. (WHO, 1991: 6). The deficient housing can compromise the most basic needs of water, sanitation, and safe food preparation and storage, allowing the rapid spread of communicable and food-borne diseases (Brown, 2003: A92-A99) and degrade overall quality of life.

Therefore, the present chapter describes the magnitude of infrastructure facilities and amenities like durable goods, sharing items, clothing, sources of water for drinking and bathing, and distance travelled for water, sources of defecation & types of defecation, recreational activities, governmental services, etc. accessed and availed by the houseless population in Kanpur city.

8.1. Status of houses owned by the relatives of houseless population

The percent distribution of data about the relatives of houseless population who have the houses to live in is given in the Table 8.1. An analysis of the Table 8.1 shows that most of the relatives (i.e. 84.45 percent) of the houseless population have houses it means that houseless people have good social connection with their relatives because their relatives have the house. Whereas only 15.55 percent relatives of the houseless persons do not have houses, which indicates the presence of houselessness in various other parts of the country also where they live. The respective figures for the relatives of houseless male and female population are 85.97 percent and 14.03 percent (for males) and 66.36 percent and 33.64 percent (for females).

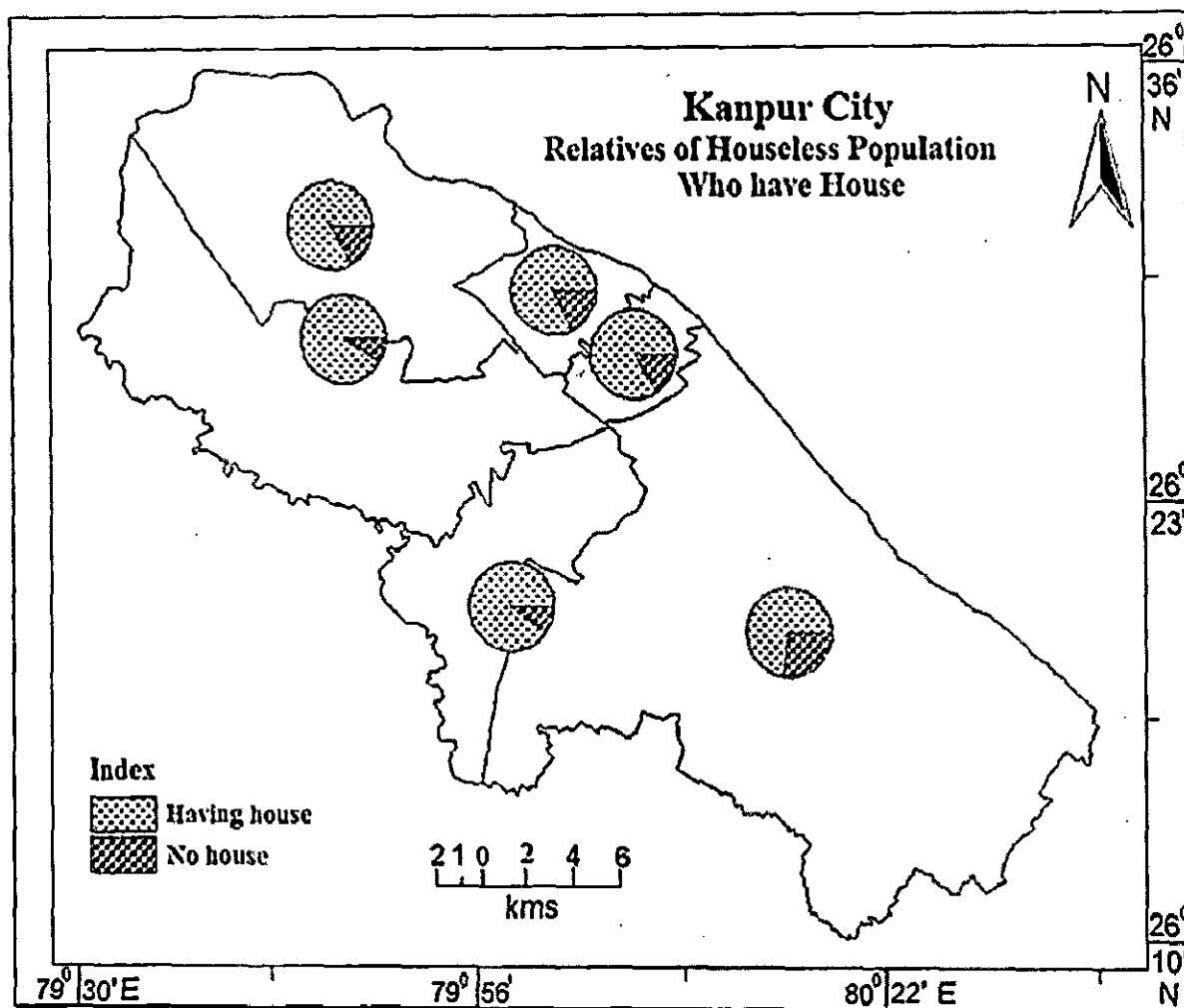
Table 8.1: Percentage of Relatives of Houseless Population having Houses

Zones	Male/Female	Relatives who have the houses		
		House	No house	Total
Zone 1	Male	86.04	13.96	100.00
	Female	52.00	48.00	100.00
	Total	84.50	15.50	100.00
Zone 2	Male	77.67	22.33	100.00
	Female	30.00	70.00	100.00
	Total	73.45	26.55	100.00
Zone 3	Male	88.89	11.11	100.00
	Female	95.45	4.55	100.00
	Total	89.86	10.14	100.00
Zone 4	Male	83.15	16.85	100.00
	Female	58.33	41.67	100.00
	Total	81.63	18.37	100.00
Zone 5	Male	93.63	6.37	100.00
	Female	68.75	31.25	100.00
	Total	91.33	8.67	100.00
Zone 6	Male	84.66	15.34	100.00
	Female	72.73	27.27	100.00
	Total	83.33	16.67	100.00
Total	Male	85.97	14.03	100.00
	Female	66.36	33.64	100.00
	Total	84.45	15.55	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher

The houseless male-female differential depicts that the ratio of houseless relatives is higher in case of houseless females in comparison to the relatives of houseless males. Further, more than three-fourth proportion of the houseless population in each zone of the city has reported that their relatives have houses, barring Zone 2 where their percentage marginally falls to 73.45 percent. In other words, the highest ratio of the houseless relatives (26.55

percent) has been accounted among the houseless people in Zone 2 followed by Zone 4 (18.37 percent), Zone 6 (16.67 percent), Zone 1 (15.50 percent), Zone 3 (10.14 percent) and Zone 5 (8.67 percent) (see Figure 8.1).



Source: Based on table 8.1.

Fig. 8.1

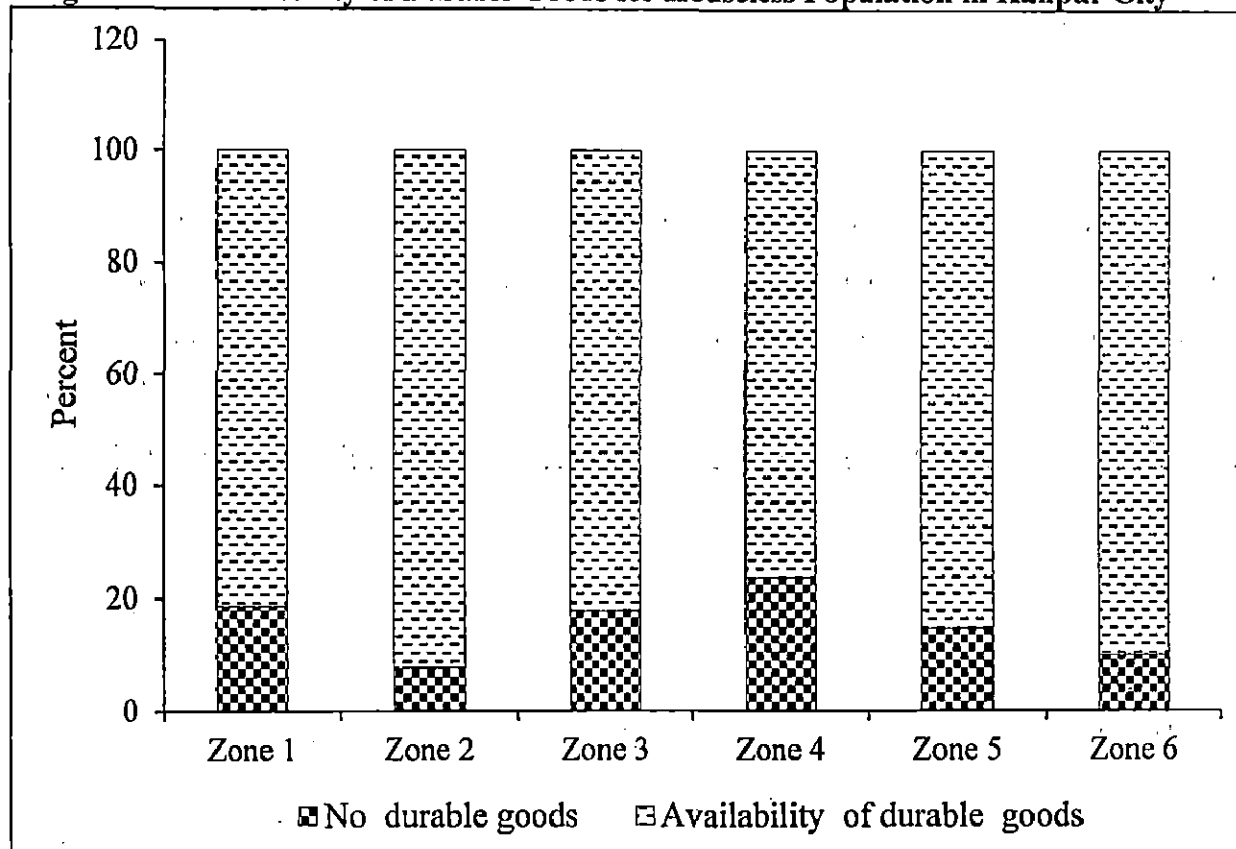
The share of relatives of the houseless male population who have houses exceeded the relatives of houseless female population in all the zones of the city except in Zone 3. It implies that the proportion of relatives of houseless females in the whole city, who are also houseless, is greater than the ratio of relatives of houseless males excluding Zone 3 in which the ratio of houseless relatives of males overstepped the houseless relatives of females.

8.2. Durable goods availed by houseless population

The data about the availability of durable goods for the houseless population has been provided in the Table 8.2. It would be seen clearly from this table that more than four-fifth (84.32 percent) of the houseless population in Kanpur city is in possession of the durable goods. The largest proportion of the houseless people having durable goods is recorded in

Zone 2 (92.11 percent) while more than three-fourth proportion of houseless persons having found to possess these goods in each zone of the city, in addition to it, in Zone 4 where more than one-fifth (23.58 percent) of houseless people are found to have no durable goods of any type (vide Diagram 8.1).

Diagram 8.1: Availability of Durable Goods for Houseless Population in Kanpur City



Source: Based on Table 8.2.

An examination of Table 8.2 exhibits that only a little more than one-fourth of the houseless people have some 'bedding items' to sleep on rather than the greasy sticky *Lungi*¹, *Gamchha*², jute-bags, poly-bags, polyethylene, *Gadda*³, blankets, towels, scarves, stoles, quilts, etc. which are usually used as beddings by the houseless people, though even these (bedding) items are also not standard beddings. More than one-fifth of the houseless people have the pots/utensils like bowls, glasses, plates, spoons, small buckets, etc. Nearly half of the houseless persons are found to possess only two durable goods i.e., bedding items and pots/utensils, with 5.31 percent houseless people using cots as their bedding, thus bedding items and cots providing bedding for more than one-third of the houseless persons.

¹ *Lungi* is a sarong-like garment wrapped around and extending to the ankles.

² *Gamchha* is a traditional Indian towel made up of thin course cotton, fabric, etc.

³ *Gadda* is a soft cushion bag filled with air or mass of padding such as feather, foam, rubber, etc.

Recent Distribution of Availability of Durable Goods for Houseless Population

Male/ Female	Durable goods for houseless population											
	No durable goods	Availability of durable goods	Bedding items	Pots	Mobile hones	Cots	Cookers	Mats	Stoves	Hand watches	Cycles	Others
Male	18.92	81.08	43.78	15.68	9.86	1.49	-	1.49	1.89	5.81	0.27	0.81
Female	15.52	84.48	25.86	24.14	6.90	10.34	-	8.62	5.17	-	-	3.45
Total	18.67	81.33	42.48	16.29	9.65	2.13	-	2.01	2.13	5.39	0.25	1.00
Male	6.07	93.93	30.36	25.51	6.88	6.88	2.83	4.86	4.45	4.05	2.02	6.07
Female	31.58	68.42	21.05	21.05	-	5.26	5.26	15.79	-	-	-	-
Total	7.89	92.11	29.70	25.19	6.39	6.77	3.01	5.64	4.14	3.76	1.88	5.64
Male	16.96	83.04	22.15	22.49	7.27	10.03	8.30	2.77	2.77	0.69	2.08	4.50
Female	20.97	79.03	12.90	33.87	4.84	8.06	11.29	6.45	1.61	-	-	-
Total	17.66	82.34	20.51	24.50	6.84	9.69	8.83	3.42	2.56	0.57	1.71	3.70
Male	24.24	75.76	29.97	16.84	11.11	3.37	4.38	3.70	1.35	1.68	0.67	2.69
Female	14.29	85.71	28.57	19.05	4.76	9.52	4.76	14.29	4.76	-	-	-
Total	23.58	76.42	29.87	16.98	10.69	3.77	4.40	4.40	1.57	1.57	0.63	2.52
Male	14.36	85.64	23.17	21.66	8.06	5.54	7.05	3.27	3.02	1.51	1.76	10.58
Female	17.95	82.05	23.08	23.08	2.56	7.69	7.69	2.56	7.69	-	2.56	5.13
Total	14.68	85.32	23.17	21.79	7.57	5.73	7.11	3.21	3.44	1.38	1.83	10.09
Male	10.53	89.47	21.68	20.21	8.00	6.74	8.21	5.89	4.00	2.32	2.95	9.47
Female	6.06	93.94	24.24	27.27	-	9.09	10.61	9.09	4.55	-	1.52	7.58
Total	9.98	90.02	22.00	21.07	7.02	7.02	8.50	6.28	4.07	2.03	2.77	9.24
Male	15.66	84.34	30.55	19.47	8.75	4.95	4.54	3.39	2.78	3.15	1.47	5.28
Female	15.85	84.15	21.89	26.42	3.40	8.68	7.17	8.30	4.15	-	0.75	3.40
Total	15.68	84.32	29.70	20.15	8.23	5.31	4.80	3.87	2.92	2.84	1.40	5.09

Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Among other durable goods, mobile phones recorded the highest availability among the houseless persons with 8.23 percent houseless people having mobile phones, followed by cookers (4.80 percent), mats (3.87 percent), stoves (2.92 percent), hand watches (2.84 percent), cycles (1.40 percent) and others durable goods (5.09 percent). The other durable goods include items like rickshaws (0.85 percent), mosquito-nets (0.74 percent), televisions (0.63 percent), chairs (0.55 percent), tables (0.44 percent), gas cylinders and hawkers (0.41 percent each), irons and electric fans (0.33 percent each), radios (0.26 percent), bikes (0.07 percent), sewing machines and tape recorders (0.04 percent each). The ratio of availability of bedding items, mobile phones, hand watches, cycles and others is higher among the houseless males in comparison to the houseless females but the reverse condition has been recorded throughout the city in the remaining durable goods. No single houseless female has been found to have a hand watch in the entire study area.

Table 8.2 reveals that the bedding items are possessed in greater proportion in all the zones, except in Zone 3 where pots are found to be possessed in the highest proportion by the houseless people among all other things. The greatest ratio of bedding items (42.48 percent) is found in Zone 1 and the smallest (20.51 percent) in Zone 3. Four zones, namely Zones 2, 3, 5, and 6, witnessed more than one-fifth of the houseless people having pots for cooking, whereas such people are found to be less than one-fifth in Zone 1 (16.29 percent) and Zone 4 (16.98 percent). Moreover, the durable goods that have been recorded to be possessed by more than five percent houseless people, excluding the category of 'others', are identified as mobile phones, found in all the zones ranging from the highest 10.69 percent in Zone 4 to the lowest 6.39 percent in Zone 2; the cots, found in four zones i.e. Zone 2 (6.77 percent), Zone 3 (9.69 percent), Zone 5 (5.73 percent), and Zone 6 (7.02 percent); cookers, found in three zones viz., Zone 3 (8.83 percent), Zone 5 (7.11 percent), and Zone 6 (8.50 percent); mats, found only in Zone 2 (5.64 percent) Zone 6 (6.28 percent); and hand watches, found only in one zone, i.e. Zone 1 (5.39 percent). However, the categories of durable goods which are found less than five percent together constituted a significant proportion of durable items for the houseless population in different zones of the city. The barring the few exceptional zones, the houseless males in possession of durable goods of bedding items, mobile phones, hand watches and cycles than the houseless females and simultaneously houseless females in the durable goods of pots, cots, cookers, mats and stoves than the houseless males have observed greater proportion with each other.

8.3. Sharing items possessed by houseless population

The percent distribution of data about the sharing items (scarves/*lungi*, blankets, pots, toiletry items, quilts, etc.) among the houseless population has been inserted in the Table 8.3.

Table 8.3: Percent Distribution of Sharing Items among Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Sharing items among houseless population						Total
		Scarves/ lungi	Blankets	Pots	Toiletry items	Quilts	No item	
Zone 1	Male	45.83	25.03	16.16	6.75	1.72	4.50	100.00
	Female	24.56	14.04	26.32	15.79	8.77	10.53	100.00
	Total	44.33	24.26	16.87	7.39	2.22	4.93	100.00
Zone 2	Male	30.50	19.69	25.10	13.90	7.72	3.09	100.00
	Female	25.00	20.00	25.00	20.00	5.00	5.00	100.00
	Total	30.11	19.71	25.09	14.34	7.53	3.23	100.00
Zone 3	Male	22.08	20.83	37.92	12.08	7.08	-	100.00
	Female	7.55	33.96	39.62	11.32	7.55	-	100.00
	Total	19.45	23.21	38.23	11.95	7.17	-	100.00
Zone 4	Male	37.73	27.11	21.98	7.69	5.49	-	100.00
	Female	17.39	26.09	21.74	21.74	13.04	-	100.00
	Total	36.15	27.03	21.96	8.78	6.08	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	20.99	27.48	27.10	12.21	10.31	1.91	100.00
	Female	3.57	28.57	32.14	25.00	10.71	-	100.00
	Total	19.31	27.58	27.60	13.45	10.34	1.72	100.00
Zone 6	Male	8.04	30.07	33.57	17.13	9.79	1.40	100.00
	Female	-	28.89	37.78	24.44	4.44	4.44	100.00
	Total	6.95	29.91	34.14	18.13	9.06	1.81	100.00
Total	Male	31.76	25.16	24.34	10.51	5.78	2.46	100.00
	Female	12.39	25.22	31.86	18.58	7.96	3.98	100.00
	Total	29.86	25.16	25.08	11.30	6.00	2.61	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The sharing items means the durable goods that the houseless people, used to exchange for use among themselves even they have not the same familial background, but related with each other only on the basis of being houseless. The data given in Table 8.3 depicts that more than one-fourth proportion of houseless population each has, as sharing items, scarves/*lungi* (29.86 percent), blankets (25.16 percent) and pots (25.08 percent). The toiletry items and quilts are possessed by 11.30 and 6.00 percent houseless people respectively, while, 2.61 percent houseless people in the city do not have any single sharing item. Excluding the category of scarves/*lungi*, the greater ratios of all sharing items are owned by the houseless females rather than the houseless males. Scarves/*lungi* recorded highest ratio among all sharing items in Zones 1, 2 and 4, whereas in the remaining three zones, i.e. Zones of 3, 5, and

6, pots accounted the largest share in the sharing items among houseless people. However, the second highest proportion as a sharing item among houseless people is occupied by blankets in all the zones of the city except in Zone 2 where the second position is possessed by pots. A notable feature indicated by the data is that the categories of scarves/lungi, blankets and pots recorded nearly one-fifth proportion among all sharing items possessed by houseless people in each zone, except in Zone 6 where scarves/lungi are found to have a share of 6.95 percent, and Zone 1 where pots registered 16.87 percent share. Toiletry items registered more than ten percent share in Zone 2 (14.34 percent), Zone 3 (11.95 percent), Zone 5 (13.45 percent), and Zone 6 (18.13 percent), whereas quilts recorded more than ten percent share only in one zone that is Zone 5 (10.34 percent). Moreover, the toiletry items and quilts are owned by more than five percent houseless persons in the all the zones of the city except in Zone 1 where only 2.22 percent houseless people are found to possess these sharing items. The houseless people who possess no such sharing items at all are observed maximum in Zone 1 (4.93 percent) and minimum in Zone 5 (1.72 percent), whereas no such people could be found in Zones 3 and 4.

8.4. Status of wearing clothes for houseless population

Table 8.4 gives data regarding the availability of wearing clothes for the houseless population. The clothing is the second basic need out of three fundamental requirements of human life. The data given in this table shows the number of pairs of wearing clothes possessed by the houseless population other than those which they had on their body at the time of survey. It will be seen from the table that more than half (52.16 percent) of the houseless people possess only one pair of wearing clothes, with about two-fifth (40.65 percent) of the houseless persons having two pairs. Only 7.19 percent of the houseless people in the whole Kanpur city have been found to possess more than two pairs of wearing clothes. The ratio of houseless males having two or more than two pairs of wearing clothes exceeded the ratio of houseless females who are found predominant in the category of people having only one pair of wearing clothes.

Table 8.4 exhibits that in three zones, the greater proportions of houseless persons who have only one pair of wearing clothes are identified in Zone 1 (65.57 percent), Zone 3 (47.30 percent) and Zone 4 (53.89 percent), while the houseless people who possess two pairs of wearing of clothes are recorded in larger numbers in Zone 2 (60.75 percent), Zone 5 (49.41 percent) and Zone 6 (50.00 percent). The highest and lowest range of people having only one pair of wearing clothes is registered in Zone 1 (65.57 percent) and Zone 6 (38.30 percent) respectively; the respective values for people having two pairs are recorded in Zone 2 (60.75

percent) and Zone 1 (30.33 percent). These two categories together constitute more than one-third proportion of houseless population in all the zones of the city except in Zone 1.

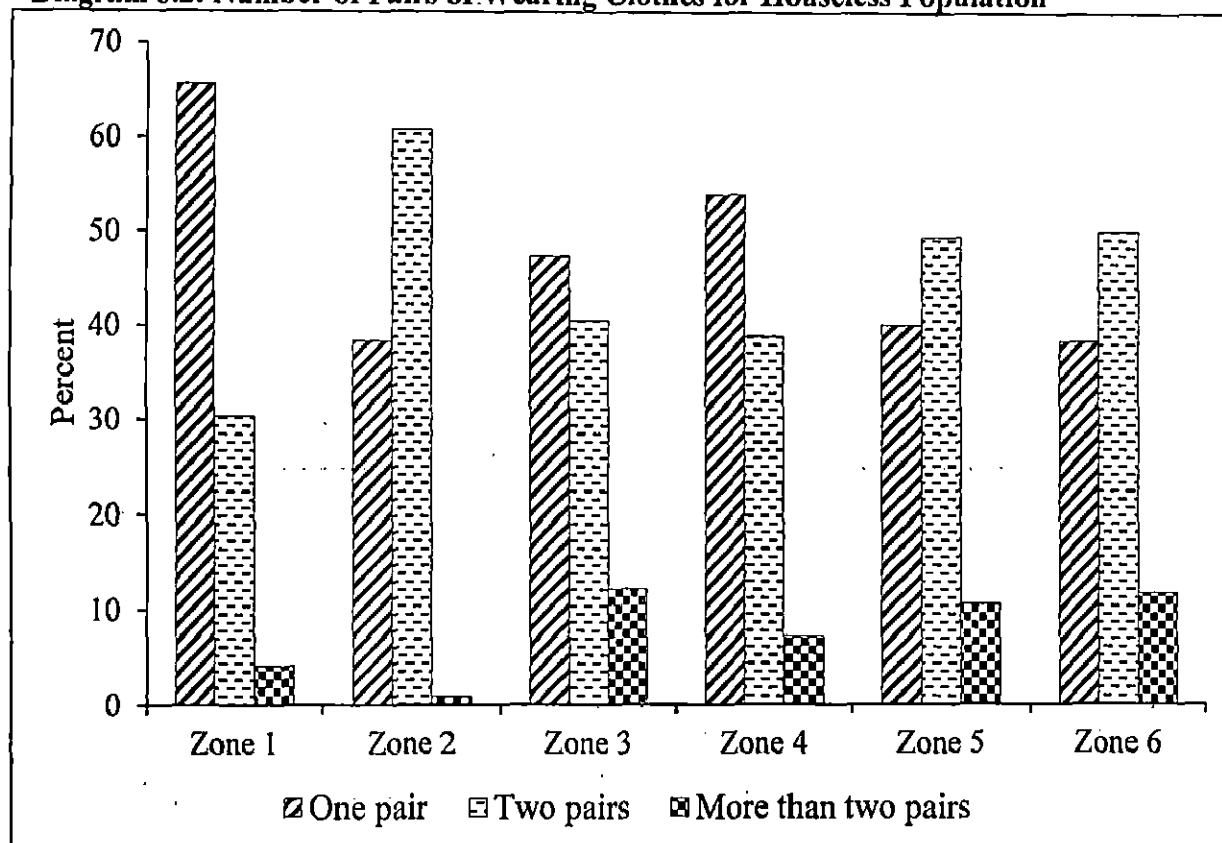
Table 8.4: Percentage of Pairs of Wearing Clothes for Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Pairs of wearing clothes			
		One pair	Two pairs	More than two pairs	Total
Zone 1	Male	65.88	30.06	4.05	100.00
	Female	57.89	36.84	5.26	100.00
	Total	65.57	30.33	4.10	100.00
Zone 2	Male	36.08	62.89	1.03	100.00
	Female	60.00	40.00	-	100.00
	Total	38.32	60.75	0.93	100.00
Zone 3	Male	44.44	41.27	14.29	100.00
	Female	63.64	36.36	-	100.00
	Total	47.30	40.54	12.16	100.00
Zone 4	Male	52.75	40.66	6.59	100.00
	Female	72.73	9.09	18.18	100.00
	Total	53.89	38.86	7.25	100.00
Zone 5	Male	38.31	51.30	10.39	100.00
	Female	56.25	31.25	12.50	100.00
	Total	40.00	49.41	10.59	100.00
Zone 6	Male	38.10	49.40	12.50	100.00
	Female	40.00	55.00	5.00	100.00
	Total	38.30	50.00	11.70	100.00
Total	Male	51.76	40.97	7.27	100.00
	Female	57.14	36.73	6.12	100.00
	Total	52.16	40.65	7.19	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Moreover, the houseless persons who possess more than two pairs of wearing clothes are ascertained above ten percent only in three zones namely Zone 3 (12.16 percent), Zone 5 (10.59 percent) and Zone 6 (11.70 percent), whereas merely 0.93 percent of such houseless people are found in Zone 2 (vide Diagram 8.2). The gender wise analysis of the data given in Table 8.4 depicts that among the houseless population who has one pair of wearing clothes, the ratio of houseless females overstepped the houseless males except in Zone 1. On the contrary, the share of houseless males surmounted the houseless females among the houseless people who possess two pairs of wearing clothes except in Zones 1 and 6. The proportion of houseless females also exceeded the houseless males among the houseless population who have more than two pairs of wearing clothes in Zones 1, 4 and 5, while the ratio of houseless males overtakes those of houseless females in the same category in Zone 6, whereas no houseless females have been recorded in Zones 2 and 3 under this category.

Diagram 8.2: Number of Pairs of Wearing Clothes for Houseless Population

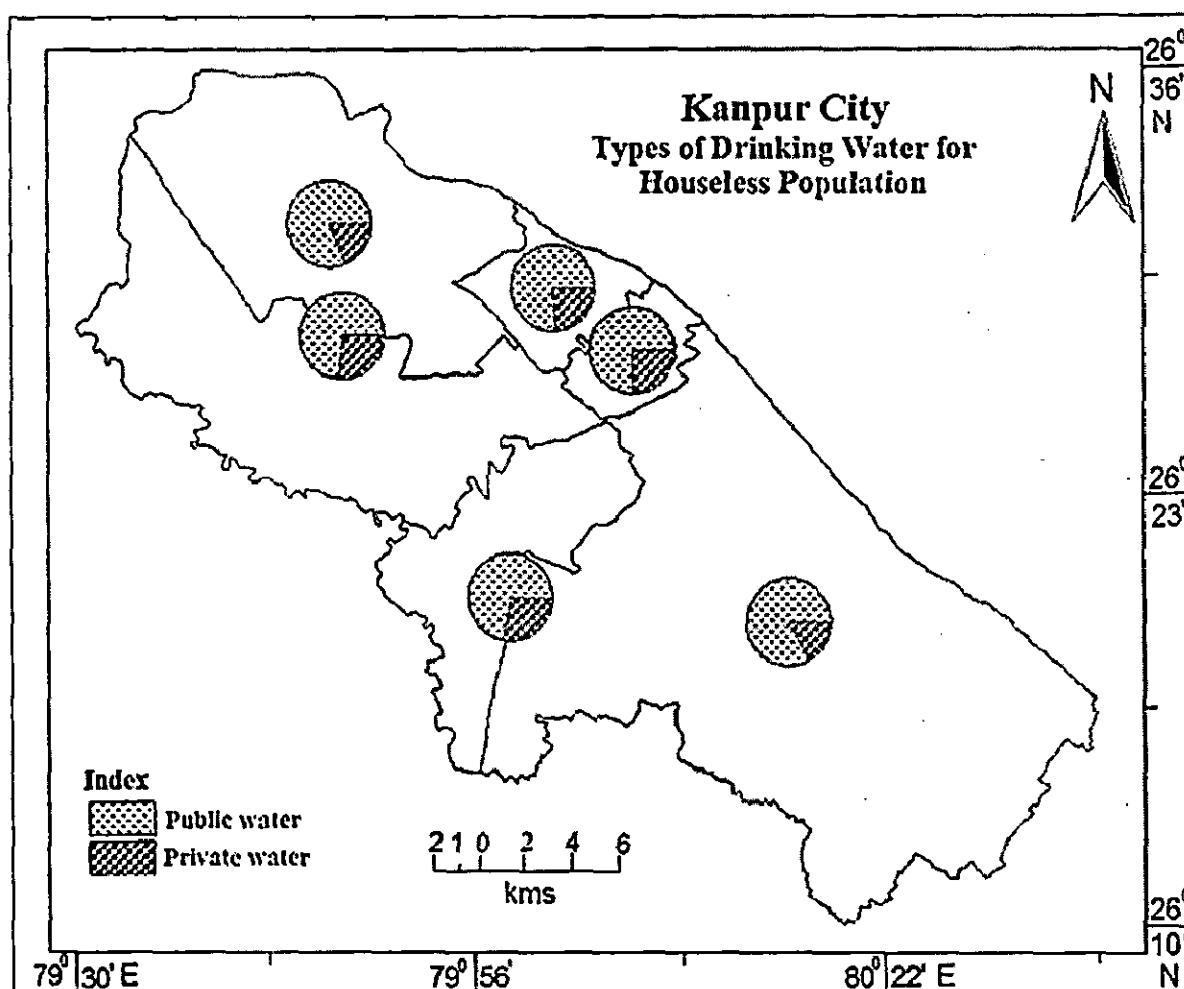


Source: Based on Table 8.4.

8.5. Types and sources of drinking for houseless population

A detailed account of percent distribution of the types and sources of drinking water and their sources available for the houseless population has been presented in the Table 8.5. An examination of the data given in Table 8.5 exhibits that more than three-fourth of the houseless population fulfills its need for the drinking water from the public sources while only a little more than one-fifth of the houseless people use the drinking water from the private sources. Nevertheless, the private sources of drinking water are not owned by the houseless people themselves, these are rather owned by local residential people as a part of their private property.

The houseless male population (76.70 percent) is more dependent on the public sources for drinking water than the houseless females (72.41 percent) and vice versa. Zone wise analysis also reveals that nearly three-fourth of the houseless population is dependent on the public sources while about one-fifth depends on private sources for drinking water in all the zones of the city except in Zone 2 where they have accounted only 16.79 percent dependency on the private sources (see Figure 8.2).



Source: Based on table 8.5.

Fig. 8.2

The gender-wise analysis of the data on the sources of drinking water shows that regarding the usage of public drinking water, houseless males hold sway over houseless females in three zones of the city i.e. Zones 1, 2 and 4 while in the remaining three zones (Zones 3, 5 and 6), the houseless females over-rode the houseless males in the usage of public drinking water. In other words, the houseless females have maximal usage of private drinking water in three zones, namely Zones 1, 2 and 4 whereas in Zones 3, 5 and 6, the ratio of houseless males overstepped that of houseless females. Further analysis of the table describes that among the types of drinking water in the Kanpur city; nearly half of the houseless population has been found to have drinking water from the hand-pumps and one-fourth from the water-tapes. Among the remaining houseless population, approximately one-fourth, (5.66 percent) drank water by purchasing-water pouches, followed by people fulfilling their drinking water needs from water coolers (4.44 percent), hotels (3.44 percent), submersibles (2.70 percent), water-tankers (2.39 percent), tube-wells (2.31 percent) and others (4.27 percent).

Table 8.5: Percent Distribution of Types and Sources of Drinking Water for Houseless Population in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/ Female	Types of drinking water		Sources of drinking water									Total
		Public	Private	Hand-pumps	Water-tapes	Water pouches	Water-coolers	Hotels	Submersibles	Water-tankers	Tube-wells	Others	
Zone 1	Male	76.21	23.79	44.72	28.71	7.68	6.08	1.07	3.20	3.74	3.09	1.70	100.00
	Female	62.50	37.50	33.33	22.73	3.03	19.70	-	-	10.61	10.61	-	100.00
	Total	75.45	24.55	44.06	28.37	7.39	6.99	1.00	3.00	4.20	3.60	1.40	100.00
Zone 2	Male	87.61	12.39	67.36	20.83	0.69	4.17	0.69	-	2.08	2.08	2.08	100.00
	Female	55.56	44.44	52.63	42.11	-	5.26	-	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	83.21	16.79	65.64	23.31	0.61	4.29	0.61	-	1.84	1.84	1.84	100.00
Zone 3	Male	69.13	30.87	37.45	26.81	6.81	1.70	9.79	-	4.26	5.53	7.67	100.00
	Female	91.67	8.33	56.67	23.33	3.33	6.67	3.33	-	-	-	6.67	100.00
	Total	72.25	27.75	39.62	26.42	6.42	2.26	9.06	-	3.77	4.91	7.54	100.00
Zone 4	Male	77.73	22.27	53.82	22.92	7.31	2.66	6.31	-	-	-	6.98	100.00
	Female	61.11	38.89	30.43	26.09	13.04	4.35	8.70	-	-	-	17.4	100.00
	Total	76.47	23.53	52.16	23.15	7.72	2.78	6.48	-	-	-	7.72	100.00
Zone 5	Male	72.73	27.27	47.08	23.74	3.50	2.72	5.06	10.12	-	-	7.77	100.00
	Female	80.00	20.00	52.00	40.00	-	-	-	4.00	-	-	4.00	100.00
	Total	73.47	26.53	47.52	25.18	3.19	2.48	4.61	9.57	-	-	7.45	100.00
Zone 6	Male	80.10	19.90	61.90	23.81	1.73	1.30	4.33	2.16	-	0.43	4.33	100.00
	Female	84.00	16.00	50.00	40.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	10.00	100.00
	Total	80.52	19.48	60.54	25.67	1.53	1.15	3.83	1.92	-	0.38	4.99	100.00
Total	Male	76.70	23.30	48.93	25.99	5.89	4.04	3.61	2.90	2.28	2.19	4.19	100.00
	Female	72.41	27.59	43.52	30.05	3.11	8.81	1.55	0.52	3.63	3.63	5.18	100.00
	Total	76.33	23.67	48.48	26.33	5.66	4.44	3.44	2.70	2.39	2.31	4.27	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The category of 'others' include sources of drinking water like temples (0.93 percent), pitchers (0.73 percent), wells (0.33 percent), factories (0.25 percent) and houses (0.23 percent). Among the types of drinking water like water-tapes, water-coolers, water-tankers and tube-wells and others, the ratio of houseless females exceeded the houseless males and reverse condition has been recorded in the remaining categories of the types of drinking water.

The maximum proportion of houseless population in the whole city is taking drinking water from hand-pumps, its share ranging from 65.64 percent in Zone 2 to 39.62 percent in Zone 3. It means that more than one-third of the houseless people in each zone are using water from hand-pumps. The second most important source of drinking water for the houseless persons is water-tapes, which is used by about one-fourth houseless people in all the zones of the city varying from the highest usage in Zone 1 (28.37 percent) to the lowest usage in Zone 4 (23.15 percent). Moreover, among the remaining types of water supplies, only selected types of water are utilised for drinking purpose by the significant share of houseless people in few zones of the city, such as water-pouches in three zones i.e. Zone 1 (7.39 percent), Zone 3 (6.42 percent) and Zone 4 (7.72 percent), water-coolers in Zone 1 (6.99 percent), hotels in Zone 3 (9.06 percent) and Zone 4 (6.48 percent), and submersible in Zone 5 (9.57 percent). In addition to it, the usage of all types of drinking water is observed in all the zones of the city, barring the usage of submersibles in Zones 2, 3 and 4, water-tankers in Zones 4, 5 and 6, and tube-wells in Zones 4 and 5.

8.6. Distance travelled for drinking water by houseless population

Table 8.6 provides the information about the percent distribution of data on the location of drinking water sources in terms of distance travelled by houseless population in the Kanpur city. It is evident from the Table 8.6 that more than one-third as well as one-fourth houseless population has travelled less than 50 metres and 50 to 100 metres distance respectively to collect the drinking water in the city. It means that the sources of drinking water are available within the circumference of 100 metres area from the places of living of houseless population, whereas 15.16 percent houseless people used to travel 100 to 200 metres distance to get the drinking water, followed by the people who have to travel a distance of 200 to 300 metres (7.04 percent), 300 to 400 metres (2.87 percent), 400 to 500 metres (0.43 percent) and even more than half kilometre (3.88 percent) in order to obtain drinking water for them. Furthermore, the significant proportion (7.54 percent) of houseless population has no fixed source of drinking water as they used to drink water anywhere due to their instability of

living/sleeping places. The marked difference among the houseless males and females regarding the distance travelled for drinking water is observed in the category of 'anywhere' in which males accounted only 6.30 percent against the females 22.64 percent.

Table 8.6: Distance Travelled by Houseless Population for Drinking Water

Zones	Male/ Female	Distances of drinking water sources in metres								
		Less than 50	50- 100	100- 200	200- 300	300- 400	400- 500	More than 500	Any Where	Total
Zone 1	Male	37.59	27.26	13.35	8.27	1.32	0.75	3.20	8.27	100.00
	Female	29.17	33.33	-	-	-	-	-	37.50	100.00
	Total	37.23	27.52	12.77	7.91	1.26	0.72	3.06	9.53	100.00
Zone 2	Male	36.89	22.33	12.62	1.94	2.91	-	17.48	5.83	100.00
	Female	10.00	30.00	-	-	10.00	-	-	50.00	100.00
	Total	34.51	23.01	11.50	1.77	3.54	-	15.93	9.73	100.00
Zone 3	Male	30.15	20.59	21.32	9.56	7.35	0.74	1.47	8.82	100.00
	Female	68.18	18.18	9.09	-	-	-	-	4.55	100.00
	Total	35.44	20.25	19.62	8.23	6.33	0.63	1.27	8.23	100.00
Zone 4	Male	45.60	36.26	13.74	2.75	-	-	-	1.65	100.00
	Female	25.00	33.33	25.00	-	-	-	-	16.67	100.00
	Total	44.33	36.08	14.43	2.58	-	-	-	2.58	100.00
Zone 5	Male	41.40	18.47	10.19	9.55	7.64	0.64	6.37	5.73	100.00
	Female	18.75	18.75	12.50	6.25	6.25	-	6.25	31.25	100.00
	Total	39.31	18.50	10.40	9.25	7.51	0.58	6.36	8.09	100.00
Zone 6	Male	35.23	18.18	27.84	8.52	2.84	-	3.41	3.98	100.00
	Female	40.91	27.27	4.55	13.64	4.55	-	-	9.09	100.00
	Total	35.86	19.19	25.25	9.09	3.03	-	3.03	4.55	100.00
Total	Male	38.02	25.12	15.79	7.31	2.88	0.47	4.12	6.30	100.00
	Female	35.85	26.42	7.55	3.77	2.83	-	0.94	22.64	100.00
	Total	37.86	25.22	15.16	7.04	2.87	0.43	3.88	7.54	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

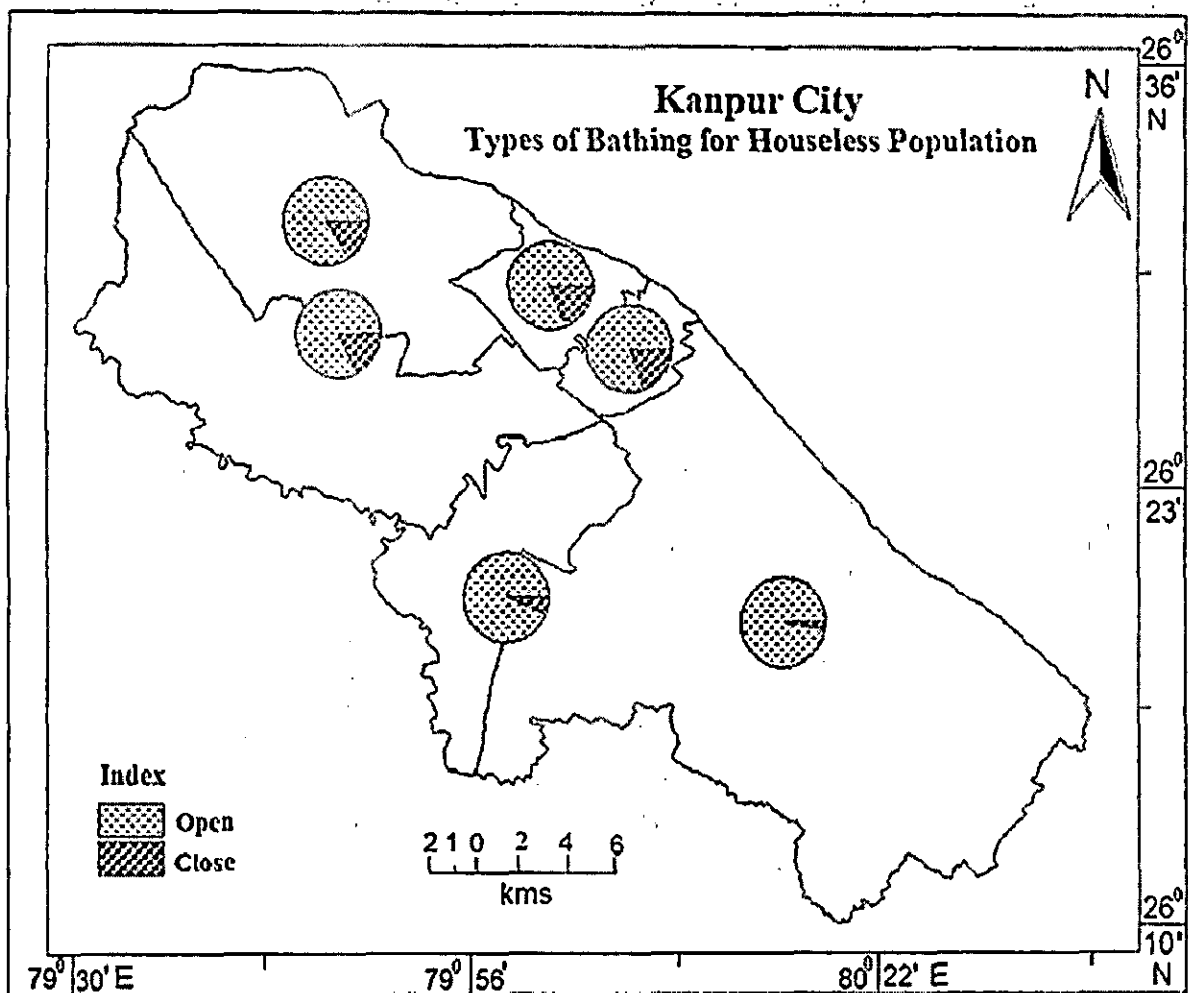
The data contained in Table 8.6 shows that more than half of the houseless people in each zone of the city have the drinking water accessibility within the 100 metres distance. The highest ratio of houseless persons who have the sources of drinking water within the circumference of 100 metres is observed in Zone 4 (80.41 percent) and least in Zone 6 (55.05 percent). The houseless people who are required to travel a distance of 100 to 200 metres for the drinking water are identified maximum in Zone 6 (25.25 percent), followed by Zone 3 (19.62 percent), Zone 4 (14.43 percent), Zone 1 (12.77 percent), Zone 2 (11.50 percent) and Zone 5 (10.40 percent). The share of houseless people of Zone 5 (9.25 percent) and Zone 6 (9.09 percent) together exceeded the percental fraction of houseless persons of other zones who have to travel 200 to 300 metres distance for collecting the water to drink. The sources of

drinking water lying at the distance of 300 to 400 metres for the houseless people are recorded in remarkable proportions in Zone 3 (6.33 percent) and Zone 5 (7.51 percent), but no zone of the city has accounted more than one percent of the houseless population travelling for the distance of 400 to 500 metres in order to collect the drinking water. However, a significant proportion (15.93 percent) of the houseless persons in Zone 2 have been found travelling for more than 500 metres distance to have the drinking water, followed by the houseless persons in Zone 5 (6.36 percent), Zone 1 (3.06 percent), Zone 6 (3.03 percent) and Zone 3 (1.27 percent). The houseless persons who have no fixed sources of drinking water are also observed in maximum proportion in Zone 2 (9.73 percent), they used to take drinking water from anywhere they could found. The houseless persons who have been taking drinking water from anywhere mainly include the mentally ill people, cycle rickshaw pullers, beggars, rag-pickers, street venders, etc. The minimum share of houseless people who drank water from anywhere is identified in Zone 4 (2.58 percent). The houseless people of Zone 4 also have not to go beyond 300 metres distance to take drinking water as all the sources of drinking water there are available within the perimeter of 300 metres.

8.7. Types and sources of bathing places for houseless population

The data regarding the types and sources of bathing places for the houseless population in terms of open or close & public or private has been provided in the Table 8.7. It would be seen from the Table 8.7 that among the types of bathing places like open and close, more than fourth-fifth of the houseless population takes bath in the open places (i.e. at hand-pumps, water-tapes, submersibles and temples) rather than the closed places (viz., *sulabh shauchalaya*⁴ and night shelters). The respective proportions for houseless males and females are 83.32 and 16.68 percent and 94.69 and 5.31 percent. Above eight percent houseless population in each zone of the city has been bathing in the open places, their highest ratio being recorded in Zone 2 (97.39 percent) and the lowest in Zone 1 (81.02 percent). In other words, it can be said that the maximum ratio of houseless people (18.98 percent) who bathe in the closed places is identified in Zone 1 and the minimum (2.61 percent) in Zone 2 (see Figure 8.3).

⁴. Sulabh Shauchalaya is a scavenging-free two-pit pour-flush toilet it is a new concept of maintenance and construction of pay-&-use public toilets, popularly known as Sulabh Complexes with bath, laundry, urinal and defecation facilities.



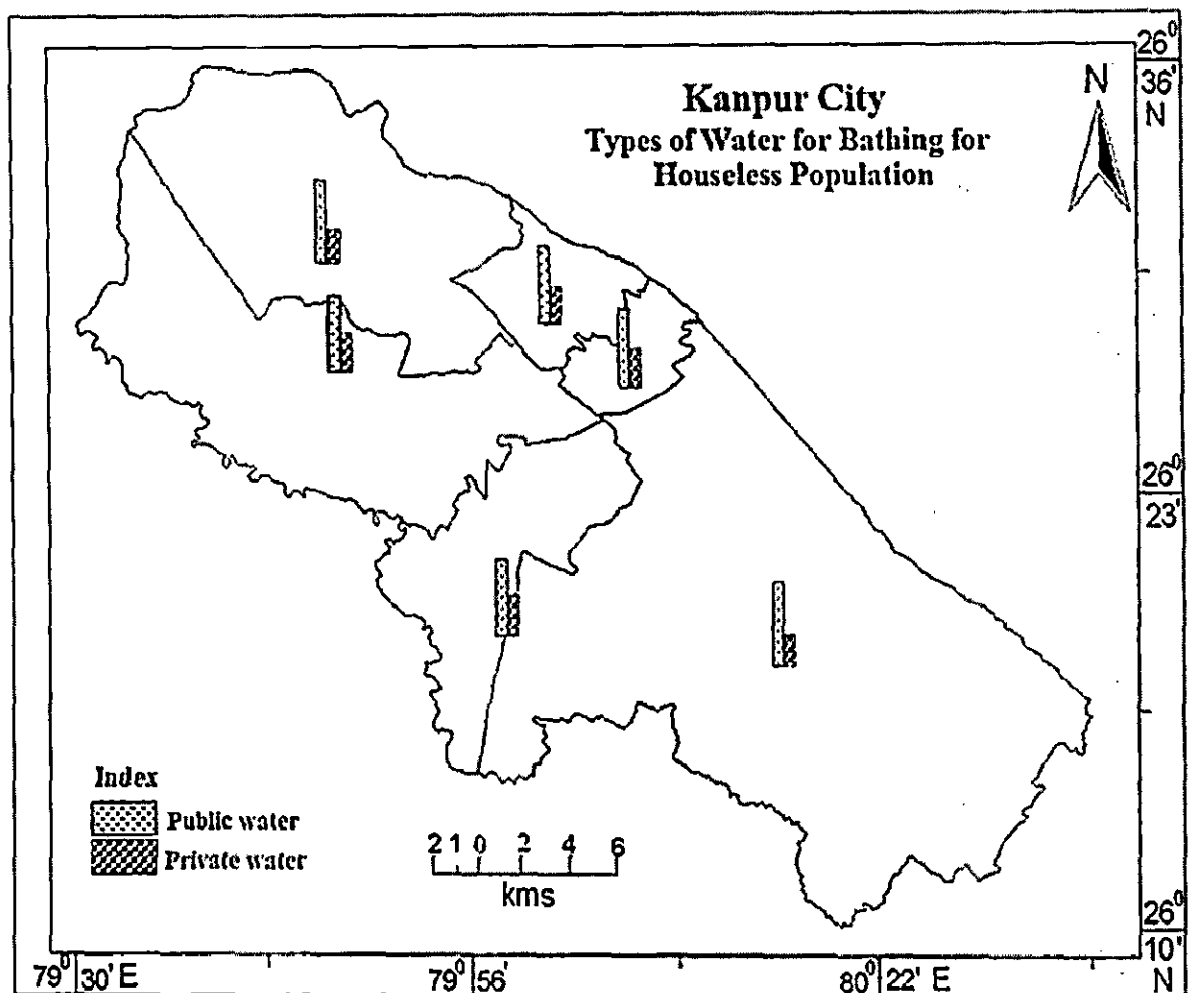
Source: Based on table 8.7.

Fig. 8.3

Hence, there is no zone in the city wherein more than one-fifth houseless people have been bathing in the closed places like *sulabh complexes*, night shelters, etc. Moreover, among the houseless population who bathed in open places, the proportion of houseless females overstepped the houseless males in all the zones of the city, with even the hundred percent houseless females in Zones 3 and 6 having to bathe in the open places and vice versa.

Further examination of the data given in Table 8.7 depicts that regarding the use of public and private bathing places by the houseless population, more than four-fifth (86.78 percent) proportion of houseless people use public sources of bathing, with only 12.22 percent persons taking bathe at the private sources. The respective figures in this regard for houseless males are 86.69 and 13.31 percent while 87.93 and 12.07 percent for females. In addition to it, more than eighty percent houseless people in all the zones of the city used public sources of bathing rather than the private sources of bathing, and the general range of the proportion of

public bathing sources varied from 82% (82.28 percent in Zone 3) to the 90% (88.43 percent in Zone 2) (see Figure 8.4).



Source: Based on table 8.7. Fig. 8.4

The ratio of houseless females also has predominance over the houseless males in the usage of public bathing places in the city except in Zones 2 and 4 in which houseless males predominated, while no zone has recorded more than twenty percent houseless population using the private sources of bathing in the city but houseless females in Zones 2 and 4 and males in Zone 3.

The data presented in the Table 8.7 also reveals the fact that more than half of the houseless population bathed at the hand-pumps and more than one-fourth at water-tapes, followed by those bathing at *sulabh complexes* (9.96 percent), *night shelters* (3.29 percent), temples (2.10 percent) and submersibles (1.39 percent). Regarding the use of various sources of bathing places, the share of houseless male population has dominated the houseless female population in terms of using *sulabh complexes*, night shelters, temples and submersibles

Table 8.7: Percentage Distribution of Types and Sources of Bathing Places for Houseless Population in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/ Female	Types of bathing places				Sources of bathing places						Total
		Open	Close	Public	Private	Hand-pumps	Water-tapes	Sulabh complexes	Night shelters	Temples	Submersibles	
Zone 1	Male	80.62	19.38	88.32	11.68	52.42	30.48	11.15	5.08	0.87	-	100.00
	Female	89.29	10.71	88.89	11.11	53.49	39.53	6.98	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	81.02	18.98	88.34	11.66	52.47	30.94	10.94	4.82	0.82	-	100.00
Zone 2	Male	98.08	1.92	89.91	10.09	73.48	24.24	1.52	-	0.76	-	100.00
	Female	90.91	9.09	75.00	25.00	62.50	31.25	6.25	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	97.39	2.61	88.43	11.57	72.30	25.00	2.03	-	0.68	-	100.00
Zone 3	Male	93.28	6.72	79.41	20.59	55.42	34.94	1.81	3.01	4.82	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	100.00	-	70.83	29.17	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	94.33	5.67	82.28	17.72	57.37	34.21	1.58	2.63	4.21	-	100.00
Zone 4	Male	80.49	19.51	88.44	11.56	56.52	25.69	15.02	0.40	2.37	-	100.00
	Female	92.31	7.69	73.33	26.67	47.37	36.84	5.26	-	10.53	-	100.00
	Total	81.19	18.81	87.38	12.62	55.88	26.47	14.34	0.37	2.94	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	81.01	18.99	82.82	17.18	47.62	20.78	11.69	3.03	5.63	11.26	100.00
	Female	94.12	5.88	88.24	11.76	56.52	34.78	4.35	-	-	4.35	100.00
	Total	82.29	17.71	83.33	16.67	48.43	22.05	11.02	2.76	5.12	10.63	100.00
Zone 6	Male	82.20	17.80	86.67	13.33	52.13	27.96	13.27	4.74	1.90	-	100.00
	Female	100.00	-	91.30	8.70	60.87	39.13	-	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	84.04	15.96	87.16	12.84	52.99	29.06	11.97	4.27	1.71	-	100.00
Total	Male	83.32	16.68	86.69	13.31	54.17	28.22	10.44	3.56	2.17	1.44	100.00
	Female	94.69	5.31	87.93	12.07	58.11	35.81	4.05	-	1.35	0.68	100.00
	Total	84.20	15.80	86.78	13.22	54.47	28.80	9.96	3.29	2.10	1.39	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

while the ratio of houseless females exceeded the houseless males in the use of hand-pumps and water-tapes. The hand-pumps have been found as one of the most important source of bathing for the houseless population and recorded more than half proportion in all the zones of the city. After the hand-pumps, the water-tapes are identified as second most significant source of bathing for the houseless persons and its proportion has been accounted more than one-fourth in the whole city except in Zone 5 which registered a little less than one-fourth i.e. 22.05 percent.

The *sulabh complexes* as the source of bathing is highly utilised by the houseless people in descending percentage order in Zone 4 (14.34 percent), Zone 6 (11.97 percent), Zone 5 (11.02 percent), Zone 1 (10.94 percent), Zone 2 (2.03 percent) and Zone 3 (1.58 percent). The night shelters provided bathing facilities for almost five percent of the houseless population, varying from the lowest 0.37 percent in Zone 4 to the highest 4.82 percent in Zone 1, whereas the night shelters in Zone 2 has have no bathing facilities for the houseless people. The religious places are also good sources of bathing for the houseless population in the Kanpur city and about five percent houseless people in Zones 3 and 5 used to bathe in the premises of temples and a smaller proportion in Zones 1 and 3 as well. In the whole city, only the houseless people of Zone 5 enjoyed bathing from the submersibles provided by the local residential people.

An important inference that may be drawn from the analysis of Table 8.7 is that in the open places of bathing like hand-pumps and water-tapes, the percentage of houseless females surmounted the houseless males in all the zones except in Zones 2 & 4 in the use of hand-pumps, and in the use of water-tapes in Zone 3. The facility of *sulabh complexes* is highly utilised by the houseless males in comparison to females excepting the houseless females of Zone 2, whereas no houseless female has been observed using *sulabh complexes* for their bathing in Zones 3 and 6. The bathing facilities available in the night shelters are mainly utilised by the houseless males and no female is found to have bathed in the night shelters in the whole city. There has been gender discrimination regarding the facility of night shelter homes because no single night shelter in the Kanpur city is made exclusively for the houseless female population and even within the existing night shelter homes in the city, no special provision have been made for the houseless females like security, separate rooms, toilets, bathrooms, laundry, urinal and defecation facilities, etc. The bathing services offered by the

religious places are also chiefly enjoyed by the houseless male population in all the zones of the city barring the Zone 4.

8.8. Distance travelled for bathing by houseless population

Table 8.8 presents zone wise percent distribution of data on the distance travelled by the houseless population in Kanpur city to have access to various bathing places.

Table 8.8: Distance Travelled by Houseless Population for Bathing

Zones	Male/ Female	Distance of bathing places in metres								Total
		Less than 50	50- 100	100- 200	200- 300	300- 400	400- 500	More than 500	Any where	
Zone 1	Male	25.09	30.19	19.43	6.23	6.23	0.75	4.15	7.92	100.00
	Female	25.00	33.33	4.17	-	-	-	-	37.50	100.00
	Total	25.09	30.32	18.77	5.96	5.96	0.72	3.97	9.21	100.00
Zone 2	Male	10.68	39.81	16.50	5.83	2.91	-	17.48	6.80	100.00
	Female	-	40.00	-	-	-	10.00	-	50.00	100.00
	Total	9.73	39.82	15.04	5.31	2.65	0.88	15.93	10.62	100.00
Zone 3	Male	22.06	19.85	25.74	19.12	7.35	0.74	1.47	3.68	100.00
	Female	63.64	18.18	13.64	-	-	-	-	4.55	100.00
	Total	27.85	19.62	24.05	16.46	6.33	0.63	1.27	3.80	100.00
Zone 4	Male	34.43	27.87	27.32	8.74	-	-	-	1.64	100.00
	Female	25.00	16.67	33.33	8.33	-	-	-	16.67	100.00
	Total	33.85	27.18	27.69	8.72	-	-	-	2.56	100.00
Zone 5	Male	36.31	17.83	13.38	10.19	10.19	0.64	5.73	5.73	100.00
	Female	18.75	6.25	18.75	12.50	6.25	-	6.25	31.25	100.00
	Total	34.68	16.76	13.87	10.40	9.83	0.58	5.78	8.09	100.00
Zone 6	Male	31.82	17.61	26.70	13.07	3.41	-	3.41	3.98	100.00
	Female	36.36	31.82	4.55	13.64	4.55	-	-	9.09	100.00
	Total	32.32	19.19	24.24	13.13	3.54	-	3.03	4.55	100.00
Total	Male	27.24	26.30	21.25	9.34	5.29	0.47	4.44	5.68	100.00
	Female	32.08	24.53	11.32	5.66	1.89	0.94	0.94	22.64	100.00
	Total	27.61	26.17	20.49	9.06	5.03	0.50	4.17	6.97	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The Table 8.8 shows that more than one-fourth share of the houseless population each has to travel a distance of less than 50 and 50 to 100 metres in order to reach the bathing places available for them, while nearly one-fifth of the houseless people used to go for bathing to a 100 to 200 metres distance. It means that for about three-fourth (74.27 percent) houseless persons, the bathing facilities are available within the perimeter of 200 metres. The sources of bathing located at a distance of 200 to 300, 300 to 400 and more than 500 metres provided the services to the significant proportion of houseless people i.e. 9.06, 5.03 and 4.17 percent respectively. The bathing services lying within the circumference of 400 to 500 metres is

availed minimum by 0.50 percent houseless people. Excluding the categories of less than 50 metres distance and of anywhere, the proportion of houseless males exceeded the houseless females in matter of travelling to various bathing sources located at the distances from 50 metres upto the more than half kilometre in the city.

As can be seen from the Table 8.8, more than one-fourth houseless population in all the zones of the city, except in Zone 2, has the bathing facilities within less than 50 metres distance, but the highest ratio has been identified by those having bathing sources located within 50 to 100 metres distance in Zone 1 (30.32 percent) and Zone 2 (39.82 percent), and by the bathing sources lying at less than 50 metres distance in Zone 3 (27.85 percent), Zone 4 (33.85 percent), Zone 5 (34.68 percent) and Zone 6 (32.32 percent). More than one-fourth proportion of houseless persons in Zones 1, 2 and 4 also accessed the bathing places located at the distance of 50 to 100 metres and nearly one-fourth houseless persons are served by the bathing sources situated at a distance of 100 to 200 metres in Zones 3, 4 and 6. However, the bathing sources located between 200 to more than 500 metres together do not provided the bathing services for more than one-fourth houseless population in the city except in Zone 5 where they served to a little bit more than one-quarter (i.e. 26.59 percent) of the houseless population. There is also a significant share of houseless population who has no fixed places of bathing and used to take bath anywhere in the city. More than five percent share of houseless persons who have no fixed places of bathing is recorded in Zone 1 (9.21 percent), Zone 2 (10.62 percent) and Zone 5 (8.09 percent).

An analysis of the Table 8.8 also reveals that the houseless males are observed mostly in each category and also travelled long distances to take the bath except in Zone 4, whereas houseless females travelled only short distances for bathing and their share is limited to few categories in comparison to the males. However, among the houseless population who has no fixed places of bathing, the ratio of houseless people is surmounted by the female population in each zone of the city.

8.9. Frequency of bathing taken by houseless population

Table 8.9 provides information about the percent distribution of frequency of bathing under taken by the houseless population. The data listed in Table 8.9 clearly depicts that nearly half fraction of houseless population in the city bathed daily whereas more than one-third houseless persons bathed only 2 or 3 times in a week, followed by those bathing once in a

week (7.66 percent), 1 or 2 times in a month (3.36 percent), with 0.69 percent houseless persons reported to have never bathed.

Table 8.9: Percentage Distribution of Frequency of Bathing by Houseless Population

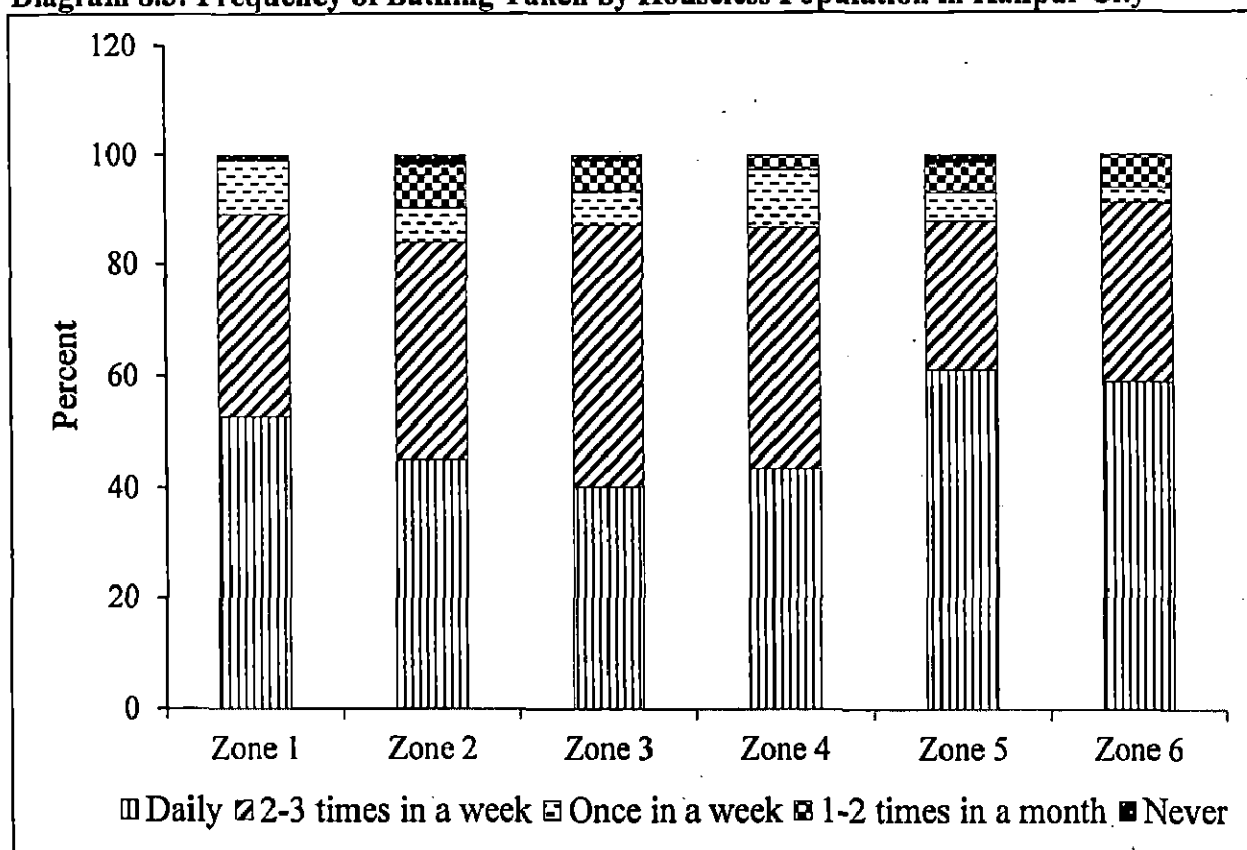
Zones	Male/ Female	Frequency of bathing by houseless population					Total
		Daily	2-3 times in a week	Once in a week	1-2 times in a month	Never	
Zone 1	Male	54.08	36.81	7.97	0.20	0.94	100.00
	Female	30.00	26.67	43.33	-	-	100.00
	Total	52.78	36.27	9.87	0.29	0.79	100.00
Zone 2	Male	49.51	36.89	3.88	7.41	2.30	100.00
	Female	-	60.00	30.00	6.91	3.09	100.00
	Total	45.13	38.94	6.19	8.08	1.65	100.00
Zone 3	Male	44.80	40.80	6.40	6.69	1.31	100.00
	Female	13.64	81.82	4.55	-	-	100.00
	Total	40.14	46.94	6.12	5.72	1.08	100.00
Zone 4	Male	45.90	42.62	9.84	1.47	0.17	100.00
	Female	8.33	50.00	25.00	13.02	3.65	100.00
	Total	43.59	43.08	10.77	2.40	0.16	100.00
Zone 5	Male	63.69	26.75	3.82	2.97	2.77	100.00
	Female	37.50	25.00	18.75	13.97	4.78	100.00
	Total	61.27	26.59	5.20	5.45	1.49	100.00
Zone 6	Male	59.66	31.82	2.84	4.45	1.23	100.00
	Female	54.55	36.36	-	7.20	1.89	100.00
	Total	59.09	32.32	2.53	5.99	0.08	100.00
Total	Male	53.58	36.11	6.53	2.94	0.84	100.00
	Female	27.68	44.64	20.54	6.90	0.24	100.00
	Total	51.48	36.80	7.66	3.36	0.69	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

The proportion of houseless males who use to bath daily (53.58 percent) is found nearly double of the females in the same category (27.68 percent). On the contrary, the share of houseless females exceeded the males in the bathing frequencies of 2 or 3 times in a week, once in a week, and 1 or 2 times in a month. The largest section of houseless population has been registered to have daily bath in all the zones of the city barring Zone 3 in which majority of houseless people (46.94 percent) used to take bathe 2 or 3 times in a week. The proportion of houseless persons who have been taking daily bath varied from the highest 61.27 percent in Zone 5 to the lowest 40.14 percent in Zone 3, and the maximum and minimum percental range of variations of bathing taken 2 or 3 times in a week have been noticed in Zone 3 and Zone 6 respectively, but the people having bath daily and 2 or 3 times in a week have been recorded above forty and thirty percent respectively in each zone of the city. The houseless persons who have been taking bath only once in a week is ascertained greater in Zone 4 (10.77 percent) and

Zone 1 (9.87 percent) in comparison to other zones of the city. The houseless persons, who have been taking bath only 1 or 2 times in a month (i.e. after 15 days or a month), have accounted more than five percent share in Zones 2, 3, 5 and 6, whereas the fraction of the houseless population who never bathed constituted only around one percent share of the houseless population in whole city (vide Diagram 8.3).

Diagram 8.3: Frequency of Bathing Taken by Houseless Population in Kanpur City



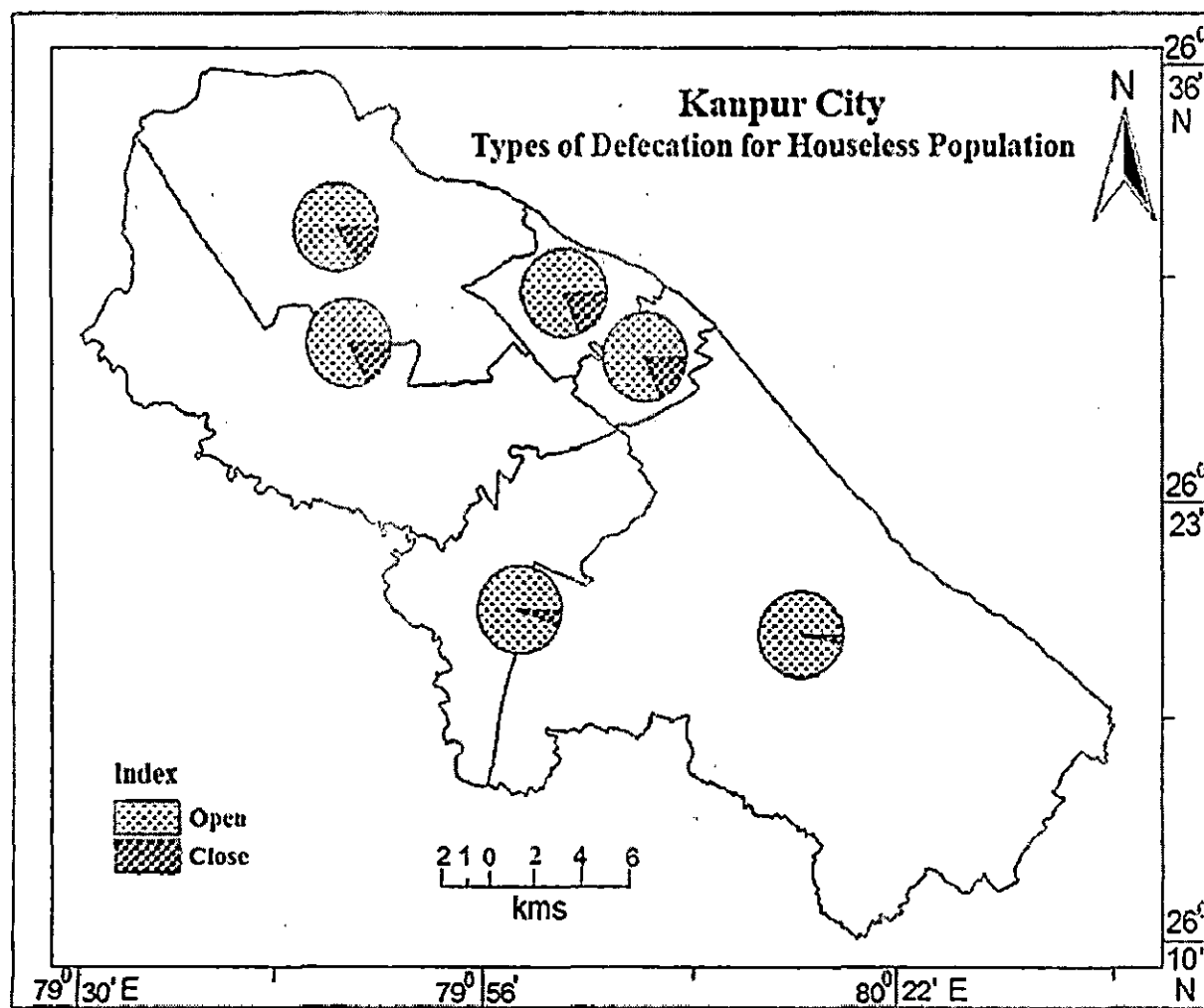
Source: Based on Table 8.9.

Zone wise analysis of the Table 8.9 reveals that the houseless males have greater share in the category of daily bathing than the houseless females in all the zones of the city. Among the houseless population who have bathed 2 or 3 times in a week, barring Zones 1 and 5, the ratio of houseless females overstepped the males in the whole city. Females also recorded higher proportion in the category of those bathing once in a week than the males in each zone except in Zone 3, while no female has been accounted in Zone 6 under the category of bathing once in a week. The predominance of houseless males in Zones 1, 2 and 3 and of females in Zones 4, 5 and 6 has been identified regarding the bathing frequency of 1 or 2 times in a month. However, the ratio of houseless females surmounted the males among the houseless persons who never bathed in the whole Kanpur city whilst no houseless female has been

registered in two zones, namely in Zone 1 and Zone 3, in both the categories i.e. bathing 1 or 2 times in a month and never bathing.

8.10. Types and sources of defecation for houseless population

An elaborated account of percental distribution of data on the types and sources of the places of defecation for the houseless population has been entered in the Table 8.10. The data given in the Table 8.10 exhibits that more than half (54.50 percent) of the houseless persons defecated in the closed spaces rather than the open spaces (45.50 percent). The respective figures for houseless males and females are 42.67 and 57.33 percent and 78.69 and 21.31 percent. Thus, larger proportion of houseless females used to defecate in the open spaces in comparison to the houseless males in the study area. More than three-fourth of the houseless persons in Zone 1 defecated in the closed spaces and Zone 4 also included more than half houseless persons who have been defecating in the closed toilets, while in the remaining zones, not more than fifty percent of these people have been recognised to have defecated in



Source: Based on table 8.10.

Fig. 8.5

Table 8.10: Zone Wise Percent Distribution of Types and Sources of Defecation for Houseless Population in Kanpur City

Zones	Male/ Female	Types of defecation		Sources for defecation							
		Open	Close	Sulabh Complexes	Open fields	Pavements	Sewers lines	Railway tracts	Night shelter toilets	Makeshift toilets	Total
Zone 1	Male	22.24	77.76	50.51	13.29	12.58	11.86	7.06	4.70	-	100.00
	Female	68.97	31.03	29.21	21.35	21.35	17.98	10.11	-	-	100.00
	Total	24.43	75.57	48.73	13.96	13.31	12.37	7.22	4.40	-	100.00
Zone 2	Male	75.42	24.58	21.3	31.77	28.52	12.27	3.61	-	2.53	100.00
	Female	83.33	16.67	21.43	35.71	32.14	10.71	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	76.15	23.85	21.31	32.13	28.85	12.13	3.28	-	2.30	100.00
Zone 3	Male	63.78	36.22	28.63	27.06	23.14	17.25	1.96	1.96	-	100.00
	Female	95.45	4.55	3.50	31.58	29.82	31.58	3.51	-	-	100.00
	Total	68.46	31.54	24.04	27.88	24.36	19.87	2.24	1.60	-	100.00
Zone 4	Male	45.58	54.42	37.43	20.49	19.67	13.66	8.47	0.27	-	100.00
	Female	84.62	15.38	15.15	21.21	24.24	21.21	18.18	-	-	100.00
	Total	47.81	52.19	35.59	20.55	20.05	14.29	9.27	0.25	-	100.00
Zone 5	Male	55.68	44.32	27.88	25.15	21.21	16.97	4.55	4.24	-	100.00
	Female	77.78	22.22	17.95	30.77	28.21	23.08	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	57.73	42.27	26.83	25.75	21.95	17.62	4.07	3.79	-	100.00
Zone 6	Male	55.07	44.93	34.05	22.22	24.73	5.38	11.47	2.15	-	100.00
	Female	71.43	28.57	27.27	31.82	25.00	9.09	6.82	-	-	100.00
	Total	57.02	42.98	33.13	23.53	24.77	5.88	10.84	1.86	-	100.00
Total	Male	42.67	57.33	38.23	20.40	18.99	12.68	6.52	2.90	0.28	100.00
	Female	78.69	21.31	20.00	27.59	25.86	19.66	6.89	-	-	100.00
	Total	45.50	54.50	36.32	21.15	19.71	13.41	6.52	2.63	0.25	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

the closed spaces rather than the open spaces and vice versa (see Figure 8.5). For example, the maximum and minimum range of houseless population using the closed toilets is observed respectively in Zone 1 (75.57 percent) and Zone 2 (23.85 percent) and vice versa. It is also evident from this table that the ratio of houseless females having to defecate in the open spaces has markedly exceeded the houseless male population in all the zones of the city while houseless males dominated the females in terms of having access to closed space for defecation in the whole city. Among the sources of defecation places, most suitable and preferred is the *sulabh complexes* which is opted by more than one-third (36.32 percent) of the houseless people and nearly one-fifth proportion of the houseless people preferred each of open fields (21.15 percent), and pavements (19.71 percent) for defecation, subsequently followed by those using sewers' lines (13.41 percent), railway tracts (6.52 percent), night shelter toilets (2.63 percent) and make-shift toilets (0.25 percent). The houseless male-female break-up data shows that the ratio of houseless females using open fields, pavements, sewers' lines and railway tracts for defecation exceeded the ratio of houseless males but the reverse condition has been observed in the category of *sulabh complexes*, whereas no houseless female has been found to have been using night shelter toilets and make-shift toilets in the Kanpur city. The defecation facilities provided by *sulabh complexes* are found to be utilised largely in four zones i.e. Zones 1, 4, 5 and 6, whereas in Zones 2 and 3, most of the houseless people used to defecate in the open fields. The highest and lowest range of *sulabh complex* facility used by the houseless persons are accounted in Zone 1 (48.73 percent) & Zone 2 (21.31 percent) respectively, and vice versa in the case of open field defecation. Further analysis of the data introduced in the table 8.10 depicts that the pavements have been ascertained as the third main source of places for defecation by the houseless population. About one-fifth fraction of houseless people out of the total houseless population in the city used to defecate at the pavements in all the zones except in Zone 1 but higher than other remaining sources of defecation after *sulabh complexes* and open fields. The fourth source of defecation facility for the houseless persons is the sewer lines as they used to sit at elevated margins of drains to defecate and excreted faecal waste flowed with the water in the sewer line. Above ten percent houseless population defecated in the sewer lines in each zone except in Zone 6, and percental array varied from maximum 19.87 percent in Zone 3 to the minimum 5.88 percent in Zone 6. The defecation sources like railway tracts, night shelter toilets and make-shift toilets are least used by the houseless people, in which the railway tracts are used

more widely in comparison to the night shelter toilets and make-shift toilets in all the zones of the city, with 10.84 percent in Zone 6 and 2.24 percent in Zone 3 being the maximal and minimal fraction of houseless people who used to go at the railway tracts for defecation. The night shelter toilets and make-shift toilets are the male dominated sources of defecation places in all the zones of the city. In addition to it, Zone 2 has not witnessed night shelter toilets as a source of defecation either for males or females, while the make-shift toilets are observed to be used only by the houseless males of Zone 2 in the whole city of Kanpur.

8.11. Activities of houseless population during non-working days

Table 8.11 gives data about zone wise percentage distribution of the activities of houseless population during non-working days.

Table 8.11: Zone Wise Percentage Distribution of Activities during Non-Working Days of Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Activities during non-working days								Total
		Personal maintenance	Relaxation	Gossip	Meet friends, family & relatives	Sleep	Recreation	Part-time works	No response	
Zone 1	Male	31.93	30.82	10.99	8.15	10.99	4.12	2.83	0.17	100.00
	Female	26.83	53.66	7.32	4.88	7.32	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	31.76	31.59	10.86	8.04	10.86	3.98	2.74	0.17	100.00
Zone 2	Male	35.11	27.11	11.56	9.33	6.67	4.00	4.00	2.22	100.00
	Female	42.86	21.43	7.14	-	7.14	-	14.29	7.14	100.00
	Total	35.56	26.78	11.30	8.79	6.69	3.77	4.60	2.51	100.00
Zone 3	Male	33.20	16.02	8.59	12.89	8.20	7.42	9.38	4.30	100.00
	Female	29.41	7.84	5.88	29.41	25.49	-	1.96	-	100.00
	Total	32.57	14.66	8.14	15.64	11.07	6.19	8.14	3.58	100.00
Zone 4	Male	26.89	23.28	16.72	11.80	6.23	7.54	3.93	3.61	100.00
	Female	16.67	33.33	12.50	8.33	20.83	-	-	8.33	100.00
	Total	26.14	24.01	16.41	11.55	7.29	6.99	3.65	3.95	100.00
Zone 5	Male	26.11	19.11	12.42	15.92	8.60	5.41	9.24	3.18	100.00
	Female	26.92	19.23	23.08	11.54	11.54	-	3.85	3.85	100.00
	Total	26.18	19.12	13.24	15.59	8.82	5.00	8.82	3.24	100.00
Zone 6	Male	23.00	21.95	7.67	10.80	14.29	10.80	6.62	4.88	100.00
	Female	35.48	22.58	16.13	9.68	3.23	-	-	12.90	100.00
	Total	24.21	22.01	8.49	10.69	13.21	9.75	5.97	5.66	100.00
Total	Male	30.02	25.67	11.29	10.42	9.84	5.76	4.94	2.08	100.00
	Female	28.88	26.20	11.23	13.37	13.90	-	2.14	4.28	100.00
	Total	29.94	25.70	11.28	10.62	10.11	5.37	4.75	2.23	100.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

It would be seen from the table that during non-working days, more than one-fourth houseless people became busy in the personal maintenance like washing clothes, shaving, hair-cutting, bathing, purchasing daily use goods, etc. but one-fourth houseless persons take the rest or relaxation after working for few days. Nearly ten percent each of houseless people spend their time during the non-working days in sleeping, gossiping with friends, and meeting friends, family & relatives, followed by those occupied in recreation (5.37 percent) and part-time work (4.75 percent), while 2.23 percent houseless people did not give any response in this regard. The houseless male population reported greater engagement during the non-working days in the personal maintenance, gossip, recreation, part-time work than the houseless females but reverse trend has been noticed in the remaining activities (see Plates 8.1 to 8.6).

The data given in Table 8.11 clearly depicts that the personal maintenance by houseless persons is ascertained as one of the most occupying activity during their non-working days, with more than one-fourth share of houseless people having reported to be busy in personal maintenance during their spare time which ranges from 35.56 percent in Zone 2 to 24.21 percent in Zone 6. Similarly, nearly one-fourth houseless population in Zones 1, 2 and 4, and about one-fifth in Zones 5 and 6 observed the relaxation at time when they have no work. Most of the houseless people used to pass their time in gossiping during their non-working days because more than ten percent houseless persons in Zones 1, 2, 4 and 5 recorded gossip as a free time activity.

Furthermore, excluding the Zones 1 and 2, more than ten percent of houseless population also used to go to meet their friends, family members and relatives during their non-working days in all the zones of the city. The fifty percent zones (i.e. Zones 1, 3 and 6) have recorded the sleep as the activity of the houseless people during non-working days above ten percent than the remaining zones of the city. The recreation is the real activity of the houseless persons during the non-working days, but less proportion of houseless population enjoyed this activity because the maximum and minimum proportions of houseless people having recreational activity on the non-working days have been identified in Zone 6 (9.75 percent) and Zone 2 (3.77 percent) respectively.

There is also a section of houseless population who did part-time work during non-working days apart from their daily regular work in order to replenish their level of income, remittances, expenditure, sustain the family, etc.

Plates: Activities of Houseless Population during Non-Working Days



8.1: Personal Maintenance



8.2: Relaxation



8.3a: Sleeping



8.3b: Sleeping



8.4a: Gossiping



8.4b: Gossiping

The highest ratio of houseless persons engaged in part-time work during non-working days has been recorded in Zone 5 (8.82 percent) and least in Zone 1 (2.74 percent). Unfortunately, some houseless people either have not reported any activity during their non-working days or have not given any response regarding the activities during their non-working days. The significant share of houseless people who gave no response has been noticed in Zone 6 i.e. 5.66 percent, whereas a very negligible ratio is observed in Zone 1 viz., 0.17 percent. Moreover, no definite pattern has been observed between houseless males and females in the activities during their non-working days among the zones of the city, but the houseless males have been identified in all the categories of the activities during the non-working days as well as in all the zones of the city in comparison to the houseless females.

8.12. Recreational activities of houseless population

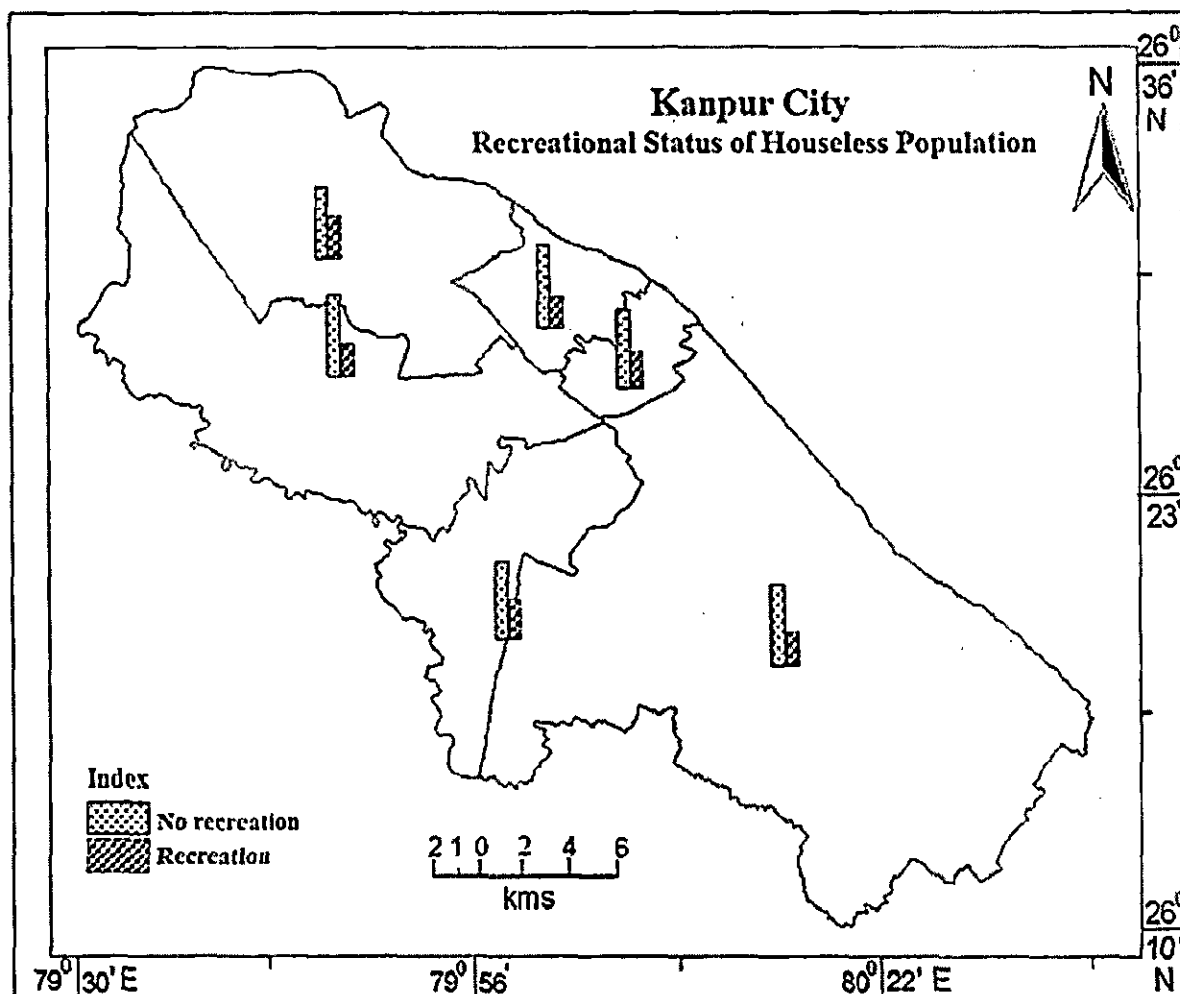
The percental distribution of recreational activities among the houseless population is given in the Table 8.12.

Table 8.12: Percentage of Recreational Activities among Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Status		Recreational activities		
		No recreation	Recreation	Television	Cinema	Others
Zone 1	Male	72.27	27.73	15.08	12.31	0.35
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-
	Total	73.42	26.58	14.45	11.79	0.33
Zone 2	Male	74.34	25.66	13.27	11.50	0.88
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-
	Total	76.42	23.58	12.20	10.57	0.81
Zone 3	Male	66.42	33.58	24.09	8.03	1.46
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-
	Total	71.07	28.93	20.75	6.92	1.26
Zone 4	Male	78.17	21.83	12.69	6.60	2.54
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-
	Total	79.43	20.57	11.96	6.22	2.39
Zone 5	Male	75.60	24.4	17.86	5.95	0.60
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-
	Total	77.72	22.28	16.30	5.43	0.54
Zone 6	Male	62.38	37.62	21.78	13.86	1.98
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-
	Total	66.07	33.93	19.64	12.50	1.79
Total	Male	71.66	28.34	16.79	10.47	1.08
	Female	100.00	-	-	-	-
	Total	73.68	26.32	15.59	9.73	1.00

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

An analysis of this table indicates that only one-fourth of the houseless population has reported to have some recreational activities at certain points of time while three-fourth of the houseless persons were found deprived of any recreation in their life.



Source: Based on table 8.12.

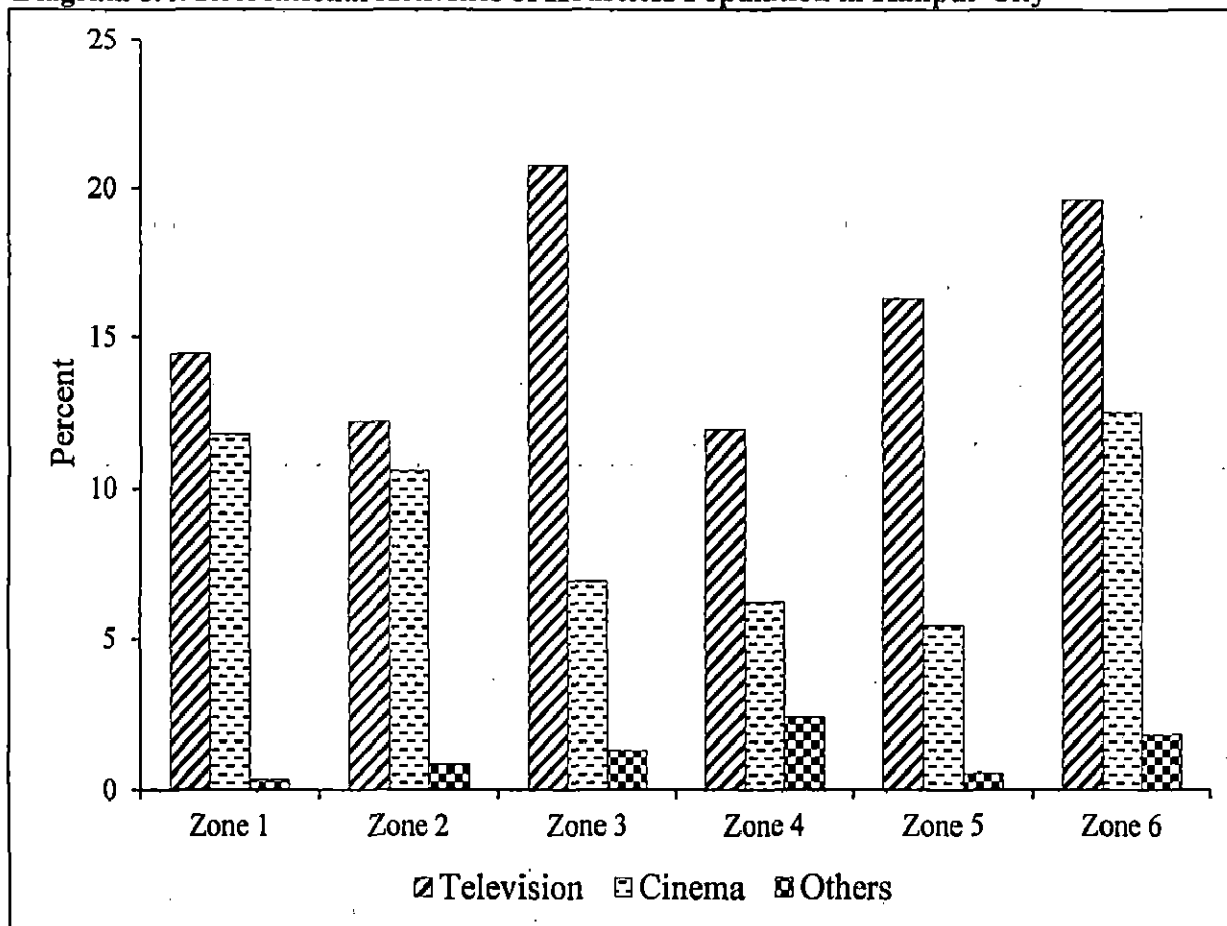
Fig. 8.6

Another notable point is that no single houseless female in the whole Kanpur city has reported to have any recreational activity which implies that only houseless males have few recreational activities though in negligible proportion. The proportion of houseless people in all the zones of the city who reported to have some recreational activities ranges from one-third to one-fifth only (see Figure 8.6).

Further examination of the data listed in Table 8.12 exhibits that among the houseless people who have some recreational activities (26.32 percent) in the city, 15.59 percent used to see television for their recreation, the television facility being available free of cost at places like tea-stalls, hotels, cycle rickshaw stands, etc. but they are allowed to see the television only if they keep taking tea, beedis, cigarettes, tobacco, food, etc. at short definite regular intervals,

and cycle rickshaws at fair, etc. On the other hand, 9.73 percent houseless persons sometimes went to see the cinema for recreation, whereas 1.00 percent houseless people have various others recreational activities like listening radio (0.60 percent), picnics (0.27 percent) and playing cards (0.13 percent).

Diagram 8.4: Recreational Activities of Houseless Population in Kanpur City



Source: Based on Table 8.12.

Television is identified as one of the most important recreational activity of houseless population in each zone of the city. The maximum number of houseless people who see the television for recreation is noticed in Zone 3 (20.75 percent) and minimum in Zone 2 (12.20 percent). Cinema is also observed as the second most important means of recreation, after television, witnessing a significant proportion of houseless population in all the zones namely Zone 1 (11.79 percent), Zone 2 (10.57 percent), Zone 3 (6.92 percent), Zone 4 (6.22 percent), Zone 5 (5.43 percent), and Zone 6 (12.50 percent). The other recreational activities (radios, picnics and cards) enjoyed by the houseless people are registered more than one percent only in three zones namely Zone 3 (1.26 percent), Zone 4 (2.39 percent), and Zone 6 (1.79 percent) (vide Diagram 8.4).

8.13. Sources of help for houseless population during emergency

Percentage distribution of the sources of help received in emergency by the houseless population is set-out in the Table 8.13. It can be seen from the Table 8.13 that more than half houseless of the population received help at the time of emergency from friends, family members, relatives, different individuals and others while less than fifty percent (46.21 percent) houseless persons didn't have any sources of help in emergency. The houseless males registered lesser ratio among those who received help during emergency than the houseless females and vice versa.

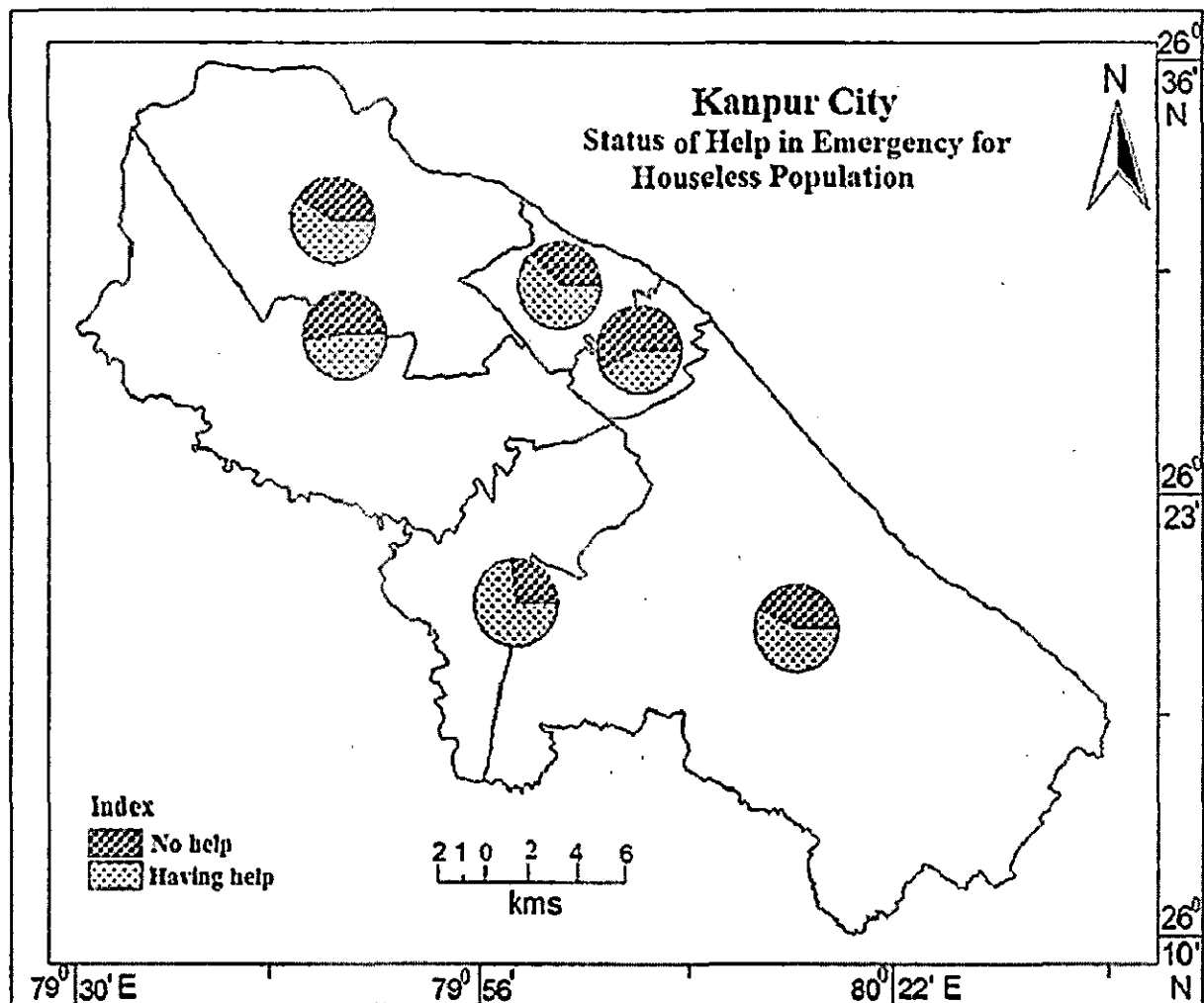
Table 8.13: Percentage of Help Received in Emergency by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Status		Help in emergency					
		No help	Received help	Individual	Friends	Family	Relatives	God	Other
Zone 1	Male	58.00	42.00	24.48	14.50	1.32	0.56	0.94	0.19
	Female	6.67	93.33	80.00	6.67	-	-	6.67	-
	Total	56.59	43.41	26.01	14.29	1.28	0.55	1.10	0.18
Zone 2	Male	44.74	55.26	21.93	11.40	16.67	4.39	0.88	-
	Female	30.77	69.23	46.15	7.69	-	15.38	-	-
	Total	43.31	56.69	24.41	11.02	14.96	5.51	0.79	-
Zone 3	Male	27.98	72.02	14.88	14.88	10.71	13.69	5.95	11.90
	Female	20.83	79.17	58.33	8.33	4.17	8.33	-	-
	Total	27.08	72.92	20.31	14.06	9.90	13.02	5.21	10.42
Zone 4	Male	37.44	62.56	33.85	22.05	4.10	2.56	-	-
	Female	54.55	45.45	36.36	9.09	-	-	-	-
	Total	38.35	61.65	33.98	21.36	3.88	2.43	-	-
Zone 5	Male	50.6	49.4	21.08	13.86	6.02	8.43	-	-
	Female	68.75	31.25	25.00	-	6.25	-	-	-
	Total	52.2	47.80	21.43	12.64	6.04	7.69	-	-
Zone 6	Male	39.89	60.11	21.28	14.36	11.70	12.77	-	-
	Female	50.00	50.00	27.27	9.09	9.09	4.55	-	-
	Total	40.95	59.05	21.90	13.81	11.43	11.90	-	-
Total	Male	46.84	53.16	23.57	15.27	6.17	5.43	1.17	1.54
	Female	37.62	62.38	45.54	6.93	3.96	4.95	0.99	-
	Total	46.21	53.79	25.09	14.70	6.02	5.40	1.16	1.44

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Zone wise analysis reveals that the maximum number of houseless people who have access to such help lies in, Zone 3 (72.92 percent) subsequently followed by Zone 4 (61.65 percent), Zone 6 (59.05 percent), Zone 2 (56.69 percent), Zone 5 (47.80 percent), and Zone 1 (43.41 percent), and a reverse condition is observed in case of non-availability of help in emergency (see Figure 8.7).

The houseless males registered a greater ratio in terms of receiving help in emergency in Zones 1, 2 and 3, whereas houseless females dominated in Zones 4, 5 and 6 in the same category and vice versa.



Source: Based on table 8.13. Fig. 8.7

Further analysis of the Table 8.13 shows that out of the total houseless population who received help in emergency, about one-fourth houseless people have been helped by different individuals like employers, passers-by, social help groups, policemen, propitiators, etc. Friends are the second most important source of help for houseless people during emergency period because 14.70 percent houseless people received help from their friends, followed by those helped by family (6.02 percent), relatives (5.40 percent), and others (1.44 percent). However, 1.16 percent houseless persons commented that only God helps every time, thus indicating the absence of any helping source. The ratio of males dominated the females in each category except the individuals' help (look Box 8.1).

Box 8.1: Some Kind of Help Felt by Houseless Population

1. "Please help us. Please do not displace from this place, how we will survive in this period of high price level, anybody please think about these situations" (Madhu: 47, Kanpur Nagar).
2. "Today, nobody is there to help anybody, except Allah" (Mubarak Ali: 35, Odhisha).
3. "I use to clean plates in a hotel in order to satisfy the hunger pangs of my family members. My father is handicapped by legs and we are seven brothers and sisters. Tell me how to pass our lives. I do not know from where the government runs, if I had known, I would have gone there and said: I will also live here, either you will beat me, I will die here, my soul says it again and again" (Kushum Singh: 24, Kanpur Nagar).
4. "We should not be removed from this place so that we can earn our means of livelihood" (Baburam: 54, Kanpur Nagar).
5. "My God and my work help me only" (Basant Lal Gautam: 49, Unnao).

Source: Based on primary survey by the researcher.

The category of others help included the policemen and NGOs (0.68 percent each) and governmental officers (0.07 percent). Table 8.13 also illustrates that the most basic source of help in emergency for the houseless population in each zone of the city is the individuals' help which is accessible by more than one-fourth to the one-third houseless people. The second significant source of emergency help after the individuals' help, i.e. help from the friends, has been experienced by houseless persons in all the zones, barring Zone 2. The ratio of houseless persons having family help during emergency period varied from 1.28 percent in Zone 1 to 14.96 percent in Zone 2. However, the emergency help received from the relatives is ascertained in descending percental order among the zones i.e. Zone 3 (13.02 percent), Zone 6 (11.90 percent), Zone 5 (7.69 percent), Zone 2 (5.51 percent), Zone 4 (2.43 percent) and Zone 1 (0.55 percent). The emergency help from various other sources namely policemen, NGOs and governmental officers, has been identified only in two zones i.e. Zone 1 (0.18 percent) and Zone 3 (10.42 percent).

A small fraction of houseless people didn't say anything regarding the sources of help during emergency period, ironically commenting that it's only God who always help them in each and every condition. Such fraction of houseless persons has been observed only in three

zones namely Zone 1 (1.10 percent), Zone 2 (0.79 percent) and Zone 3 (5.21 percent). The gender wise analysis of data shows that barring few exceptions, the proportion of houseless males exceeded the females in all the sources of help accessed during emergency period in all the zones of the city, excluding the source of individuals' help in which the ratio of houseless females overstepped the males in each zone of the study area.

8.14. Governmental services availed by houseless population

Table 8.14 provides percentage of government services received by the houseless population in Kanpur city.

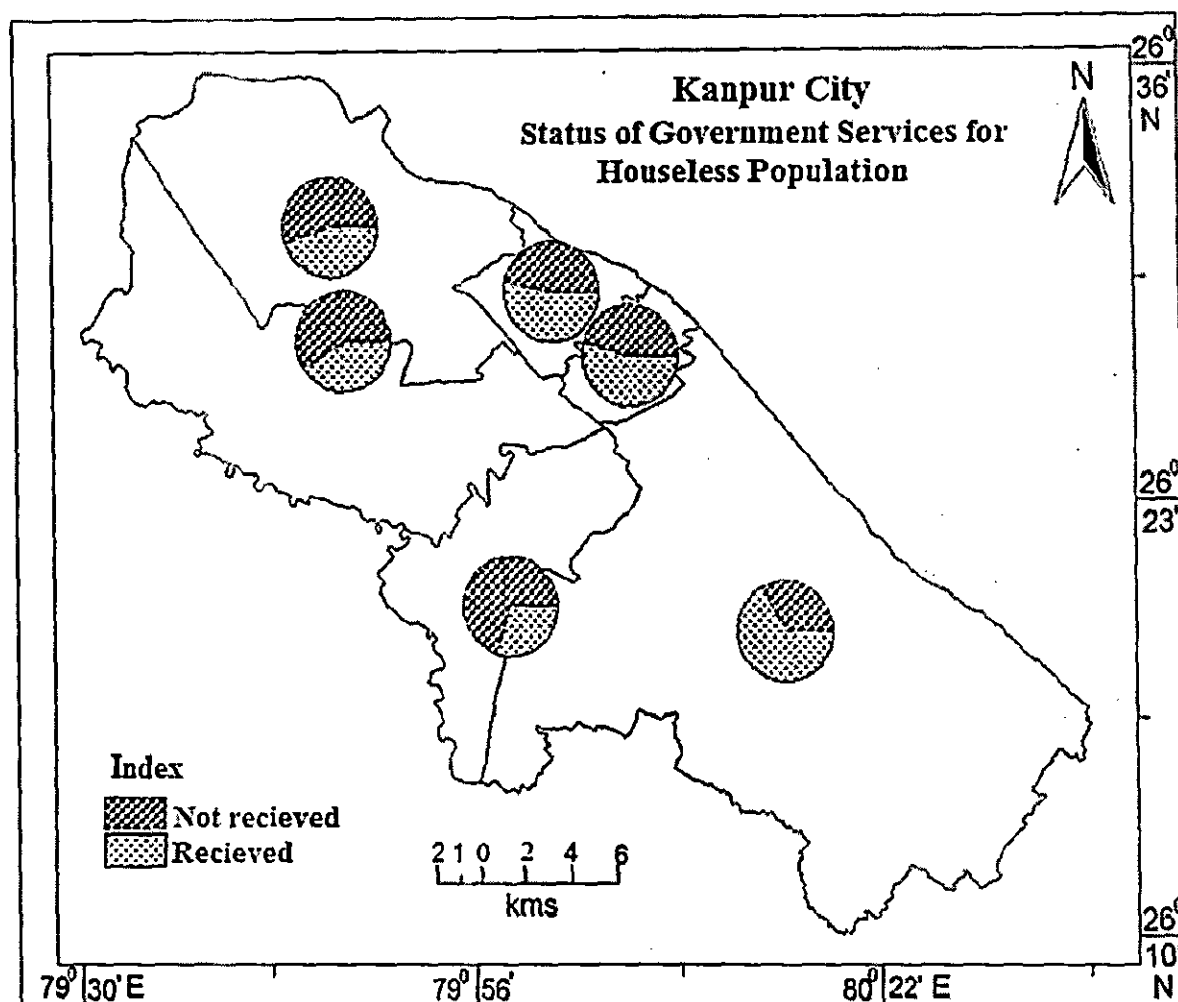
Table 8.14: Percentage of Government Services Received by Houseless Population

Zones	Male/ Female	Status		Government services						
		Received services	No services	Voter ID cards	Ration cards	Ration cards have	Voter ID have	BPL cards	UID cards	Others
Zone 1	Male	46.28	53.72	39.95	43.65	11.32	3.93	0.46	0.69	-
	Female	33.33	66.67	30.77	23.08	7.69	38.46	-	-	-
	Total	45.73	54.27	39.69	43.05	11.21	4.93	0.45	0.67	-
Zone 2	Male	35.79	64.21	46.15	32.69	9.62	9.62	-	1.92	-
	Female	10.00	90.00	50.00	50.00	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	33.33	66.67	46.30	33.33	9.26	9.26	-	1.85	-
Zone 3	Male	66.38	33.62	38.57	27.14	7.14	7.86	8.57	2.86	7.86
	Female	63.33	36.67	69.57	13.04	4.35	8.70	-	4.35	-
	Total	69.57	30.43	42.94	25.15	6.75	7.98	7.36	3.07	6.75
Zone 4	Male	48.63	51.37	48.05	40.26	7.14	3.25	0.65	-	0.65
	Female	16.67	83.33	-	100.00	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	46.67	53.33	47.44	41.03	7.05	3.21	0.64	-	0.64
Zone 5	Male	62.82	37.18	53.95	43.42	1.32	1.32	-	-	-
	Female	18.75	81.25	40.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	-	-	-
	Total	58.72	41.28	53.50	42.68	1.91	1.91	-	-	-
Zone 6	Male	55.11	44.89	40.30	11.19	11.94	27.61	5.97	2.24	0.75
	Female	50.00	50.00	16.67	11.11	38.89	22.22	5.56	-	5.56
	Total	54.55	45.45	37.50	11.18	15.13	26.97	5.92	1.97	1.32
Total	Male	50.95	49.05	43.29	36.34	8.73	7.23	2.16	1.03	1.22
	Female	41.51	58.49	41.27	19.05	15.87	19.05	1.59	1.59	1.59
	Total	50.22	49.78	43.17	35.37	9.13	7.89	2.13	1.06	1.24

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

It would be seen from this table that the fifty-fifty percent houseless population has affirmed to avail the few selected government services like voter identity cards (ID), ration cards, below poverty line cards (BPL), unique identification cards (UID), pensions, mid-day meal in schools, handicapped certificates, bank accounts and various gifts. The houseless male population received more governmental services than the houseless female population, and

vice versa (look Box 8.2). The zone-wise analysis depicts that more than fifty percent houseless population has received the governmental services only in three zones i.e. Zones 3, 5 and 6, and in the remaining zones (Zones 1, 2 and 4), less than fifty percent houseless people reported to avail the governmental services but more than one-third proportion and vice versa (see Figure 8.8).



Source: Based on table 8.14. Fig. 8.8

An examination of the data given in Table 8.14 exhibits that among the houseless population who availed the governmental services, more than half (51.06 percent) has the voter ID cards in which only 7.89 percent persons used to carry them where ever they go, live and sleep which shows their consciousness about life. Likewise, more than one-third of houseless people (44.50 percent) have the ration cards wherein merely 9.13 percent houseless persons have their ration cards with them.

Moreover, the houseless persons who have voter ID cards and ration cards with them were mostly houseless family members living with the family. The ratio of houseless males

exceeded the females among the houseless population who have the voter ID cards and ration cards but the reverse trend has been recorded among the houseless people who really possess the voter ID cards and ration cards with them. The BPL cards bearers have been accounted only 2.13 percent among all the houseless, followed by the UID card holders (1.06 percent) and others (1.24 percent). The category of other governmental services is constituted of the services like various governmental gifts (0.89 percent), pensions (0.18 percent), and handicapped certificates and bank accounts (0.09 percent each).

Box 8.2: Government Services Need by Houseless Population

1. "We have neither clothes to wear, nor house to live, this is our life" (Raju: 33, Kanpur Nagar).
2. "Dwellers of *Jhopadpattis* can neither eat good food nor wear good clothes, nor live in good condition. We have to pay money to live here, we have just paid Rs 10. The people of elite class are residing in this Colony who want to remove us from here; some people came here with sticks to beat us. Nobody is ready to give us room on rent and those willing to give the room charge such high rent that we cannot afford it" (Manpal: 57, Farrukhabad).
3. "We are not passionate to become rich or elite, we just need a small hut and means of employment" (Om Prakash: 38, Fatehpur).
4. "Can I get something out of it (the survey) for my health treatment?" (Shankar: 70, Mainpuri).

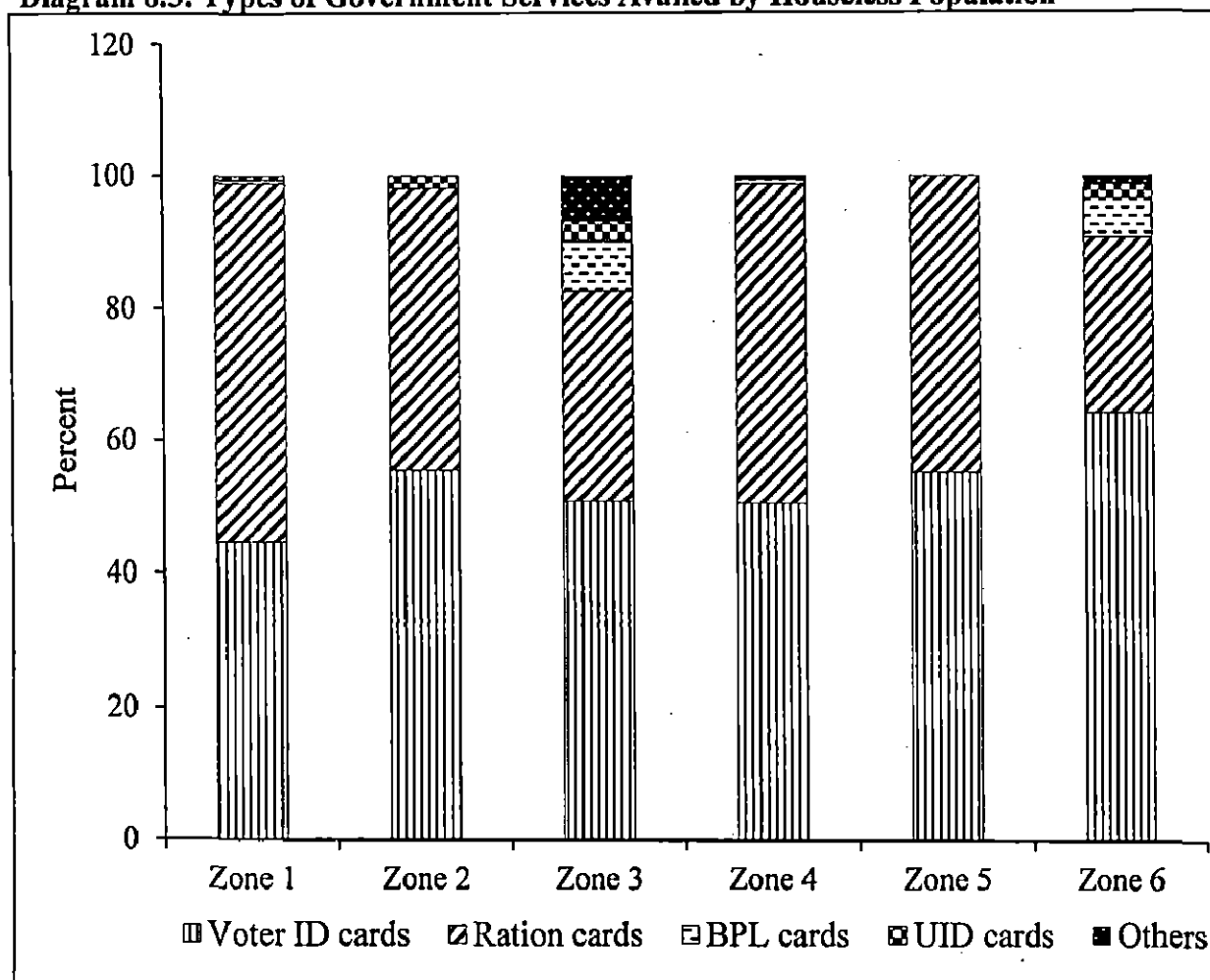
Source: Based on primary survey by the researcher.

As can be seen from the Table 8.14, voter ID cards are possessed by more than half of the houseless people in all the zones except in Zone 1, ranging from the lowest 44.62 percent in Zone 1 to the highest 64.47 percent in Zone 6. The percentage ratios between the houseless persons who have their voter ID cards only at their respective homes and who have their Voter ID cards with them always are followed respectively as 39.69 and 4.93 in Zone 1, 46.30 and 9.26 in Zone 2, 42.94 and 7.98 in Zone 3, 47.44 and 3.21 in Zone 4, 53.50 and 1.91 in Zone 5, and 37.50 and 26.96 in Zone 6.

Likewise, the combined proportion of houseless persons who have their ration cards at their respective homes and who always carry the ration cards with them recorded, maximum 54.71 percent in Zone 1 and minimum 26.31 percent in Zone 6. Moreover, the zone wise respective percentage ratios between them are 43.05 and 11.21 in Zone 1, 33.33 and 9.26 in

Zone 2, 25.15 and 6.75 in Zone 3, 41.03 and 7.05 in Zone 4, 42.68 and 1.91 in Zone 5, and 11.18 and 15.13 in Zone 6. The government service of BPL cards is availed by houseless people only in four zones i.e. Zones 1, 3, 4 and 6, wherein the maximum share is witnessed in Zone 3 (7.36 percent) and Zone 6 (5.92 percent) while no single houseless person is reported to have BPL card in Zones 2 and 5.

Diagram 8.5: Types of Government Services Availed by Houseless Population



Source: Based on Table 8.14.

Similarly, the government service of UID cards is also observed among the houseless people in only four zones, namely Zones 1, 2, 3 and 6, but not more than three percent in any zone except in Zone 3 (3.07 percent) whereas Zones 4 and 6 didn't have any single houseless person availing the UID card service (vide Diagram 8.5). The other services comprising of various governmental gifts, pensions, handicapped certificates and bank accounts for the houseless population are identified only in three zones namely Zone 3 (6.75 percent), Zone 4 (0.64 percent) and Zone 6 (1.32 percent). However, no houseless person was observed to have availed any of these other governmental services in remaining zones of the city.

References:

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Chapter 9

Conclusions and Recommendations: Preventions and Interventions

Since the evolution of the man on the surface of the Earth, the humanity has been rendering for three basic needs of life i.e. food, clothing and shelter, but upto the 21st century, our democratic and socialistic society is unable to fulfill these needs of life, moreover, three modern additive basic requirements of life namely health, education and recreation. Simultaneously, modern development in terms of level of economic growth, level of education, level of health services, degree of modernisation & urbanisation, quality of housing, distribution of goods and services, available means of transportation & communication, etc., and emergence of many cities in the world as major regional or global commercial centres, shrinking man-land ratio caused by exponential population growth, and, the widening gap between the 'haves and have nots' have made the problem of houselessness very grim while at the same time providing lesser and lesser affordable housing and modern household infrastructure facilities and amenities for rural in-migrants, especially, in the large and metropolitan cities of the developing countries of the world, where, this problem is being aggravated, day by day, with the new arrival of rural poors who come in the cities in search of jobs that they may earn the means for their livelihood. These rural poors, after being failed to adjust in the rural habitat, when reach to the cities, generally, spend their nights in the open sky on the pavements along the roads, road-dividers, public places, bridges, etc. Most of them do not have pure air to breathe, potable water to drink, not to mention, anything about their shelter, food and clothing. After centuries of denying, rejecting and assisting the needs of the houseless people, there is still a search for solutions to the problem of houselessness.

The houselessness is an evocative social character of late modernity which encapsulates many things like destitution, displacement, poverty, unemployment, drugs addiction, physical & sexual abuse, criminality, fear, pity, crisis of infrastructure facilities, health problems, exploitation, malnutrition & under nutrition, mental illness, etc. The houseless are archetypal outsiders, and even in a modern world that apparently celebrates plurality and difference, they are distinguished by a lack of social status, invisibility, economic crisis, etc. because the houseless has been seen as outcast and rejected section of the society, at the bottom of the social scale, disreputable and nicheless. Houselessness is a social problem that has to be a key focus of recent policy developments by the government; otherwise it may

soon pose a black-clout upon the urban society of the country and there will be flood of houseless creepers in the cities of the world in very near future.

Notwithstanding, the image of the houseless, however, has not been entirely accurate as they have been portrayed as drunk, stoned, crazy, sick, drug abusers, mental & physical disabled, runaway & throwaways, etc. by the media and by many social science researchers. Although the portrayal is partly accurate, these images are indeed obstacles in the way towards a better understanding of the houseless population. When a researcher examines the houseless with monologist views, it is not surprising that the houseless are generally portrayed as socially dysfunctional given the researchers' and journalists' preoccupation with the problems that the houseless presumably have, but that preoccupation can lead to a general distortion of the issue of houselessness. As houselessness is not just about the absence of a physical shelter but also it has multiple meanings on socio-economic conditions that include the houseless themselves. It is essential to allow the houseless people to describe their condition in their own discourse to provide a more accurate and balanced depiction of the houseless. Therefore, in the present research work an in-depth study of such socio-economic characteristics of houseless population in Kanpur city has been made and *houseless population is defined as persons who do not live in a house, having their few possessions with them use to sleep and live in the informal places, not meant for human habitation, excluding the slums dwellers, nomadic tribal people (gipsies) and Hindu saints, and a house, being a physical structure of dwelling with roof and walls has the separate main entrance into it from the public way.*

The present study is based on primary source of data generated through a comprehensive field survey in the Kanpur city carried out during 2012. Moreover, some houseless households are very difficult to be identified at all, at any particular place and time due to lack of their fixed abode and hidden in nature; in every zone, the wards were visited before drawing the actual sample of households and the sample of 25% houseless households were randomly selected for the survey. The survey consisted of 1384 sampled houseless households in the Kanpur city whereas the total number of sampled houseless population of the city was 2353 which includes the total sampled houseless households (1384) and houseless households' family members (969). For the collection of primary data, the boundary of the ward has been taken as the smallest unit of study and the houseless households as a unit of enquiry. Having identified the respondents through prior visits in each ward, the individual slips were used to ease the task of survey in the city. Among the total 110 wards of the Kanpur city, the

houseless population was found only in 96 wards while 14 wards did not witness the presence of houselessness during the survey in the city.

9.1. Summary

The Chapter four contends the social characteristics of houseless population in Kanpur city. Out of the total selected houseless respondents (1384), 1287 houseless persons were mentally normal whereas only 97 were found to be mentally ill. Among them, 1276 were males in which 75 persons were mentally disabled while 1202 had normal conscious mind. The respective figures for the houseless female respondents were 108, 22 and 86. The number of mentally-ill houseless males was greater than mentally-ill houseless females in the city. Similarly, the share of houseless male respondents in the city exceeds that of houseless female respondents in terms of normal mental status.

The data regarding the sources of origin of houseless population exhibit that the problem of houselessness in the city has its fundamental base in the rural areas of the country because more than seventy percent of the houseless people were found to be from rural background in the various villages, markedly overstepping the houseless people with urban background in all the zones of the city.

The data about the sex-composition of houseless respondents, houseless family members and houseless households depict that the proportion of houseless male population was exceedingly much greater than the houseless female population among the sampled houseless respondents in the city which proved that the facet of houselessness is male oriented problem in urban centres mostly in all countries of the world. Out of the total selected houseless respondents (1384) in the city, 91.79 percent were males and only 8.21 percent were females. The zone wise analysis of sex-composition of houseless respondents also exhibits that the ratio of houseless males exceeded that of the houseless females. The sex-composition among the houseless households' family members was recorded comparatively moderate or a little bit favourable in comparison to sex-composition of houseless respondents as well as sex-composition of houseless households (sum of total number of respondents and houseless households' family members), with females outnumbering the males wherein males recorded a share of 46.18 percent and females 53.82 percent. The sex-composition among the houseless households was also male dominated because the proportion of males was 72.35 percent and of females was 27.65 percent.

The percent distribution of data about age-composition of houseless respondents shows that a huge chunk of the houseless was comprised of the working age-group (19-64 years of age) while a very little fraction of the houseless was consisted of the juvenile (below 19 years of age) and the senile (above 65 years of age) population altogether in the city. Nearly 89.00 percent houseless persons belonged to the adult age-group (19-64 years of age) while senile age-group and juvenile age-group combinedly accounted 11.07 percent and separately 7.23 and 3.84 percent respectively. The age-composition of houseless households' family members, on the other hand, provides the information that a large proportion of houseless households' family members lies in the juvenile age-group (0-19 years of age) which accounted nearly 59 percent of the total houseless households' family members along with a very little fraction (4.55 percent) of houseless households' family members having found in the senile age-group (above 65 years of age). Hence, the total dependency ratio (sum of the juvenile houseless population and senile houseless population) among the houseless households' family members was 63.24 percent where the working age-group (20-64 years of age) composed only 36.76 percent.

The data on age-sex structure of houseless respondents reveal that the percentage of houseless male respondents exceeded that of houseless female respondents in 0-49 age-group. But the condition was reversed in the age-group above 49 years in which the percentage of females was higher than that of males. Nonetheless, in the quinquennial age-groups from 30-49, both males and females were predominant in the city.

Analysis of the data about the age-sex distribution of houseless households' family members depicts that a significant proportion was occupied by the juvenile age-group (0-19 years of age) population and very small fraction by the senile age-group (above 65 years of age), while, the adult age-group (20-64 years of age) population has a moderate percentage share. The age-groups wise percent distribution of houseless households' family members was quite moderate in comparison with the age-group distribution of houseless respondents. The juvenile age-group among houseless families (0-19 years of age) registered the highest proportion (58.60 percent), which is larger than the share of adult age-group (36.84 percent) and senile age-group (4.56 percent) taken together.

The data regarding the marital status of houseless respondents shows that nearly fifty percent houseless respondents was found to be married, followed by the un-married, widowed and separated or divorced population. The ratios of married and un-married males are one and

half times greater than that of the females. However, the opposite situation has been observed in the marital status of widowed and separated/divorced, wherein the females recorded a greater percent share (about four times) than the males among the widowed persons, while the ratio of separated or divorced females was nearly double of that of the males. The marital status of houseless households' family members, exhibits that the number of un-married persons in the houseless families was nearly double in proportion to the married persons, while a negligible share was occupied by the widowed and separated/divorced population. Among the married and un-married marital-status of houseless households' family members, the ratio of females exceeded the males, however, the males surpasses females in the widowed marital-status category.

The data about the houseless population based on religion gives evidence that two religions, namely Hindu and Muslim altogether dominated the bulk of houseless population of the city in which the majority of houseless persons belonged to the Hindus and it was more than seven times of that of the Muslims. Among the religious composition of houseless population of the city, the Hindus accounted 82.84 percent, followed by the Muslims (11.75 percent) and others religious groups (0.29 percent). Further, the religious identity of 5.12 percent houseless population has not been recognised due to their mental disability, reluctant nature of respondents, fear of communal and sectarian violence, etc.

The distribution of data in terms of caste categories i.e. general castes, other backward castes (OBCs), scheduled castes (SCs), scheduled tribes (STs) provides information that majority of houseless population in the city was composed of OBC people (42.13 percent), followed by the general category population (25.09 percent), SCs population (24.37 percent) and STs population (3.26 percent). The houseless people of OBC category outnumbered the houseless persons of general as well as ST categories in all the zones of the city. There remained a small fraction of houseless population whose categories could not be known.

Percent distribution of data on literacy status of houseless respondents signifies that the rate of illiteracy among the houseless respondents was much higher (61.42 percent) than literacy rate (38.58 percent). Zone wise analysis also reveals that the ratio of illiterate houseless people was recorded higher than the literates in all the zones of the city. The data of educational levels among houseless respondents show that the magnitude of primary education was to a large extent, higher than secondary, senior secondary, graduation and diploma combinedly and they accounted 69.60, 21.22, 6.69, 2.29 and 0.19 percent respectively. There

was no diploma holder in the city except in Zone 6 which accounts 1.56 percent (1.59 percent among the males).

The percent distribution of data on literacy status among the houseless households' family members reveals the fact that the proportion of illiteracy among the houseless households' family members was even much higher than houseless respondents. The ratio between literates and illiterates among family members accounted 27.55 and 72.45 percent respectively. The respective figures for males were 26.05 and 73.95 percent, and for females 33.87 and 66.13 percent. The educational levels among houseless households' family members indicate that literate people upto primary level, have almost four times greater share in the city in comparison to the total proportion of secondary, senior secondary and graduate people.

An examination of the data on socio-economic and biological reasons of illiteracy among houseless population reveals that the economic determinants occupy nearly three-fifth (59.38 percent) share among all the reasons of illiteracy, followed by social and biological reasons of illiteracy i.e. 36.34 and 4.29 percent respectively. The social reasons were found to be more detrimental for female illiteracy than the economic reasons because social reasons accounted 50.57 percent against the economic (41.13 percent) and biological (8.30 percent) reasons combinedly in the city. On the contrary, the male illiteracy was mainly determined by the economic causes instead of social and biological reasons wherein the percentage shares of social, economic and biological reasons responsible for male illiteracy were 34.43, 61.82 and 3.75 respectively.

Among social reasons of illiteracy among houseless population, the proportion of ignorant parents registered 41.03 percent. If the shares of ignorant parents, orphanage (23.22 percent) and no interest in education (11.79 percent) have to be taken together into account, they evidenced 76.04 percent share as reasons of illiteracy, while large family size, long distance from schools, gender discrimination, caste discrimination and absence of schools as social reasons of illiteracy combinedly have been reported 21.75 percent.

As far as the economic reasons of illiteracy among houseless population are concerned, poverty was found to be the main hindrance in the way of attaining education because this section of population consisted of absolute poors rather than the relative poors as they did not even possess the minimum means to satisfy their basic needs of life. The high cost of education, low income and unemployment were also other significant impediments for

houseless people to be literates. The maximum proportion among economic reasons of illiteracy was recorded by "poverty" (47.67 percent). The high cost of education, low income, and unemployment as reasons of illiteracy have registered 19.55, 18.80 and 12.33 percent share respectively. It means that the four economic factors, namely poverty, high cost of education, low income and unemployment were the major determinants of illiteracy among houseless people, combinedly accounting to 98.35 percent.

The data regarding the biological reasons of illiteracy among the houseless people in the city show that the mental illness was a key causal factor of illiteracy, though parents' illness/death and normal illness were subsequent factors in the biological reasons which have a little bit impact on illiteracy. The proportion of mental illness as an arresting factor for literacy was exponentially highest (89.58 percent) among all the biological reasons, followed by parents' illness/death (8.33 percent), whereas only 2.02 percent normal illness determine the illiteracy rate of houseless persons.

An analysis of the data regarding various socio-economic reasons of illiteracy prevalent among the houseless population reveals that the poverty has been the most significant reason of illiteracy for houseless persons and it nearly accounted one-third (28.30 percent) share out of the various reasons of illiteracy, followed by ignorant parents (14.91 percent), high cost of education (11.61 percent), low income (11.16 percent), orphanage (8.44 percent), unemployment (7.32 percent), no interest in education (4.29 percent), mental disability (3.84 percent), large family size (2.37 percent), long distance from schools (1.88 percent), gender discrimination (1.65 percent), caste discrimination (1.16 percent) and others (3.08 percent).

The objective of Chapter five was to study the economic characteristics of houseless population. The data about houseless workers and non-workers exhibit that the ratio of houseless workers exceeded that of houseless non-workers. It has been mainly due to the male selective migration from the rural country-sides to the city for employment opportunities, high wages, regular work, etc. and these rural in-migrants try their best to get some kind of work, that they even get engaged in petty works such as cycle rickshaw pullers, load rickshaw pullers, construction workers, rag pickers, waiters & cooks, street venders, loaders & unloaders, cobblers, maid servants, etc. to sustain their life and family. The ratio of workers for houseless males was recorded even much higher than that of non-workers i.e. 87.75 and 12.25 percent respectively. The respective figures for houseless females were 45.28 and 54.72 percent.

The data regarding working status of houseless households' family members as workers and non-workers present the reality that there is larger proportion of non-workers in comparison to workers among houseless households' family members. The high share of non-workers among houseless families has been due to the larger number of juvenile & senile dependents, and further due to physically and mentally disabled population and females too. The ratio of workers was only one-fourth (25.08 percent) to that of non-workers (74.92 percent) in the city. Females have dominance over males in the working population, for example, the ratio of workers and non-workers among the female population was 42.20 and 57.80 percent but for males it was only 21.22 and 78.78 percent respectively.

The percent distribution of data between skilled and un-skilled houseless workers in Kanpur city shows that the proportion of un-skilled workers (87.39 percent) has been recorded much greater in comparison to the skilled workers (12.61 percent) in the working houseless population. The share of female skilled and un-skilled workers was 17.65 and 82.35 percent respectively while the respective figures for males were 12.38 and 87.62 percent.

It would be seen from the percent distribution of data about types of houseless workers in terms of daily workers, permanent workers and seasonal workers that more than ninety percent houseless workers were daily workers because they have no regularity either in same type of work or in number of continuous working days in any type of work due to acute paucity of employment opportunities for these people. The permanent houseless workers accounted only 6.68 percent out of the total workers and merely 0.34 percent houseless were seasonal workers.

The distribution of data analysing the causes of unemployment among houseless non-workers depicts that in all given causes of unemployment among houseless persons, mental disability has the maximum percentage share (23.01 percent). The lack of jobs and poor health, though being a little bit less than mental disability in proportion, also have a good negative restrictive influence upon the houseless people in terms of getting employment/work, their respective share being 21.02 and 18.18 percent. About 11.36 percent houseless persons do not want to work merely because of their gender i.e. because of being women.

The data about the percent distribution of professional activities of houseless population clearly indicate that nearly fifty percent (48.45 percent) houseless persons were engaged in cycle rickshaw pulling and construction works out of the total houseless population in the study area. Further, 14.51 percent were recognised as beggars who were mainly engaged in

begging activity due to the mental & physical disabilities, old age, social persecution stigmatisation, orphanage, etc. The professional activities which involved more than two percent of the houseless people were distinguished as load rickshaw pulling (5.20 percent), loading & un-loading (3.47 percent), rag-picking (3.03 percent) serving as waiter in hotel (2.67 percent), street vending (2.53 percent) and owning *Pan Masala Khokha* (2.31 percent). The data about the subsidiary professional activities of houseless population show that the high ratio of houseless population was identified in the casual works (30.09 percent), begging (27.43 percent), loading & un-loading (18.58 percent) and cycle rickshaw pulling (13.27 percent).

The percent distribution of data regarding the number of working days in a month for houseless population shows that more than fifty percent houseless workers have full month work, while only 3.62 percent workers were getting 29-25 days work in a month. The persons who got 24-20 and 19-15 days work per month were recorded 12.36 and 10.05 percent respectively. The proportion of houseless persons who were unable to get any job in a month is registered 13.74 percent.

As can be seen from the data about the number of working hours per day for the houseless population, maximum majority of houseless working population was working 8 to 10 hours work per day, followed by the workers who were working 10 to 12 hours work. The combined proportion of workers who work 8 to 10 hours and 10 to 12 hours per day was registered 65.22 percent.

The data about the duration of joblessness in months per year for houseless population in Kanpur city give the information that more than fifty percent houseless persons (54.23 percent) availed the employment opportunities throughout the year, while nearly one-sixth (13.74 percent) houseless population did not have access to any type of work all through the year, and thus throughout their life, with 32.03 percent of the houseless workers having no regular work.

The percent distribution of data about daily income of houseless respondents evidences that more than one-third of the houseless population earned ₹ 150-200 per day, the houseless people who earned a daily income of ₹ 200-250 were recorded 21.06 percent. A significant ratio (16.21 percent) of houseless respondents was also observed in the category of people earning ₹ 100-150 per day. Besides this, the proportion of houseless people, who earned a daily income of less than ₹ 50 to ₹ 50-100 and from ₹ 250 to more than ₹ 300 registered 14.47

and 6.08 percent respectively. Moreover, it is a matter of great concern that because of being houseless, 8.61 percent persons were found to have no source of income for their survival and they had to depend on begging, foraging, and various charities for their sustenance. The percent distribution of monthly income of houseless households' family members shows that more than forty percent houseless households' family members have a monthly income of ₹ 1000-2000 and more than one-third family members were earning ₹ 2000-3000 per month, followed by people having a monthly income of ₹ 500-1000 (17.70 percent), ₹ 3000-4000 (7.11 percent), less than ₹ 500 (3.16 percent) and more than ₹ 4000 (only 0.40 percent).

Analysis of data regarding per capita income of houseless population classified according to houseless respondents, houseless households' family members and houseless households exhibits that the houseless respondents who were surveyed in the Kanpur city have more than rupees four thousand monthly per capita income viz., ₹ 4574. The monthly per capita income among males was ₹ 4774 and among females it was ₹ 2215. The monthly per capita income of houseless households' family members in the city was recorded only ₹ 469, which was too low to fulfill even the basic requirements of life. It means that the houseless households' family members were totally dependent on their main earning hand members of the family, identified as houseless respondents. On the other hand, all the houseless households have less than rupees three thousand (₹ 2885.25) monthly per capita income.

The percent distribution of data pertaining to daily savings of the houseless population envisages that nearly one-third of the houseless population (30.59 percent) has its daily savings upto ₹ 40-80, while more than one-fifth of the houseless persons (20.25 percent) accounted their daily savings upto ₹ 20-40, and very close to one-fifth (19.09 percent) of the houseless persons also saved upto ₹ 80-100 per day. The lower proportions of savings among the houseless persons were witnessed below ₹ 20 and above ₹ 100, so that the houseless people who saved ₹ 10-20 and below ₹ 10 per day accounted 6.94 and 2.02 percent respectively. The respective figures for the people whose daily savings were ₹ 100-150 and above ₹ 150 were observed to be 7.45 and 0.65 percent only. However, 13.02 percent of the houseless people did not have any savings at all.

It may be seen from an analysis of the data about the daily expenditure of houseless people that more than fifty percent of the houseless population has recorded ₹ 50-100 per day expenditure, followed by people having a daily expenditure of less than ₹ 50 (22.47 percent), ₹ 100-150 (15.82 percent), ₹ 150-200 (2.31 percent) and above ₹ 200 (1.52 percent). However,

7.08 percent of the houseless people were observed to have no expenditure at all, mainly due to having no source of income, their life being totally dependent on charities and foraging.

An inspection of the data about the frequency of remittances made by houseless people in the city to their respective families in villages shows that more than forty percent of these people remitted money to their homes on a regular basis, while nearly forty percent of the houseless population was found unable to remit any amount because of having no savings or no family, living with their family the life of houseless, being divorced, separated, widowed, old, orphans, runaways, throwaways, or due to high price level, social stigmatisation, mental and physical disability, etc. The frequency of remittances of was found higher among the houseless males than the females in the categories of both regular and irregular remittances, but the proportion of houseless persons who did never remit any amount of money was recorded extraordinarily higher among the houseless females (more than three-fourth i.e. 79.51 percent) than that of males (35.53 percent).

The percent distribution of data about per month remittances made by houseless population envisages that nearly sixty percent of the houseless population regularly remitted its income to home on a monthly basis while about forty percent did never remit any income to home. More than thirteen percent of the houseless people remitted income to their homes in each of the categories of ₹ 1000-1500 and ₹ 1500-2000 per month. The subsequent categories of remittances in descending proportion have amounted ₹ 2000-2500 (11.05 percent), ₹ 2500-3000 (8.60 percent), ₹ 3000-3500 (5.49 percent), above ₹ 3500 (3.68 percent) and below ₹ 500 (0.65 percent). Among the houseless population who did not remit any amount, females accounted more than double of the share of males.

The percent distribution of data regarding per month expenditure on food by houseless population shows that a remarkable proportion of houseless population has a monthly expenditure of ₹ 1500-2000 (31.99 percent) and ₹ 1000-1500 (27.87 percent) on food, followed by people having a monthly food expenditure of ₹ 2000-2500 (14.95 percent), ₹ 500-1000 (10.76 percent), more than ₹ 2500 (5.05 percent) and less than ₹ 500 (3.39 percent). Notwithstanding, about six percent of the houseless population was found to have no money to spend even on one of the most basic needs of life i.e. food, their food requirements being fulfilled by *Sadka*, *Zakaat*, *Daan*, *Langar*, *Bhandara*, foraging, alms and some other kinds of charities.

The percent distribution of annual expenditure on clothes made by houseless population reveals that more than seventeen percent of the houseless population has no money to spend on clothing and they use to wear old, torn, black and sticky clothes given by others. The houseless people who have their annual expenditure on clothing less than ₹ 400 and ₹ 400-600 accounted more than fifty percent, though houseless persons having ₹ 600-800, ₹ 800-1000 and above ₹ 1000 annual clothing expenditure have registered to be 17.37, 7.24 and 3.76 percent respectively.

Information about the monthly expenditure on health services by the houseless population exhibits that forty percent of the houseless population does not have any option or financial assistance to avail any type of medical services and the expenditure incurred by houseless population on its health issues ranged from less than ₹ 10 to more than ₹ 50 only. An analysis of the data designates that nearly one-fourth of the houseless persons (24.57 percent) spent less than ₹ 10 per month on their medical treatment. Likewise, more than one-fifth of the houseless people (22.76 percent) have a per month expenditure of ₹ 10 to 30 on health services. A very small fraction of houseless population (12.68 percent) was found to have incurred a little higher monthly expenditure on health in the categories namely ₹ 30-40, ₹ 40-50 and above ₹ 50.

The data regarding percental distribution of monthly expenditure on education by the houseless population reveals the striking fact that the greatest proportion of houseless population (95.46 percent) has been found to have no monthly expenditure on education at all and only 4.54 percent of the houseless people have spent some amount of their income on education.

The data on monthly expenditure incurred on miscellaneous things by the houseless population provides the fact that the houseless people who spent ₹ 200 to 500 per month on miscellaneous things accounted more than fifty percent of the total houseless population under study, while the persons having monthly miscellaneous expenditure less than ₹ 200 and more than ₹ 500 constituted only 9.77 and 27.07 percent respectively, whereas 5.93 percent of the houseless people were found to have no miscellaneous expenditure as they were totally dependent on different types charities for fulfilling their needs.

An analysis of the data regarding monthly expenditure incurred for various purposes by the houseless population depicts that more than three-fourth proportion (76.07 percent) of the total expenditure by houseless population occurred on food, followed by the expenditures

on miscellaneous things (18.83 percent), clothing (4.24 percent), health services (0.58 percent) and education (0.28 percent). It means that about 95% expenditure of houseless population is engulfed by the food and miscellaneous things like recreation, transportation, consumptive items (consumptive items also include the various consumptive ingredients like tea, refreshment items, beer, alcoholic drinks, tobacco, cigarettes, *beedis*, *pan masala*, etc.).

The percent distribution of data about sources of food for houseless population clearly depicts that the majority of houseless people in the city (42.83 percent) fulfilled their food requirements by purchasing cooked food while nearly one-third of these people (32.57 percent) used to have self-cooked food. More than eleven percent of the houseless persons rendered on foraging and different charities for their food. A negligible ratio of houseless population ate food at the hotels free of cost, being cook/waiter at the respective hotels.

The data about the sources of fuel used for cooking by the houseless people, who used to have self-cooked food, exhibit that their primary sources of fuel mainly included wood (39.68 percent), shrubs (30.60 percent) and cow-dung (17.11 percent) followed by kerosene oil (6.43 percent), coal (5.14 percent) and LPG (1.04 percent).

The data on the frequency of food taken per day by houseless population reveal that nearly two-third (65.83 percent) of the total houseless population has been recorded to take two meals per day. The houseless people who could have food only once in a day accounted 15.11 percent while 7.34 percent of the houseless persons were found to be able to take food three times a day. But the most striking feature revealed from the data was that more than one-tenth (10.70 percent) of the houseless population was found unable to take food even once in a day, and thus forced to live hunger stricken for the whole day, continuously craving for the food.

The distribution of data about the payment made by the houseless population for the space used by it for living, sleeping, bathing, etc. at the footpaths shows that more than one-third proportion (35.37 percent) of the houseless population used to pay money to the owners of such spaces for bathing, drinking, defecation services, etc., while 7.03 percent of such houseless persons took the responsibility of the security of the places where they used to live or sleep like shops & houses, or used to perform some domestic chores, etc. of the owners instead of cash payment in exchange of living and sleeping over their spaces.

Information about the percentage distribution of other supportive services availed by the houseless population evidences that charities and foraging supported each nearly twenty

percent of the houseless persons, followed by clothing (16.49 percent), food stamps (16.49 percent), asking for money (10.37 percent), friends' help (8.35 percent), advice (3.20 percent), families' help (2.23 percent), medicare (2.09 percent), employers' aid (1.95 percent) and pensions (0.21 percent).

The purpose of Chapter six was to analyse the socio-economic determinants of migration of the houseless population operating simultaneously as pushing factors of out-migration at the places of their origin as well as pulling factors of in-migration in the Kanpur city, and their socio-economic causes of houselessness. The distribution of data between migrants and non-migrants shows that the number of migrants was greater than non-migrants in all the zones of Kanpur city. Out of the total houseless households surveyed (1384 respondents), 1282 houseless households have been found migrants which is more than 90% of the total houseless households recorded in the Kanpur city. Out of the total migrant houseless households, males and females accounted 1184 and 98 respectively, while the total number of non-migrant houseless households in the city was 102, in which 93 were males and 9 were females.

The percent distribution of houseless population regarding its original place of occurrence (i.e. those who originated in the same ward in which the survey was carried out, and those who originated in other wards of the city but had moved into the surveyed ward) depicts that most of these houseless people belonged to other wards of Kanpur city than the wards where they enumerated as houseless persons during the survey. A large percent value of houseless population of other wards was reported by houseless females in comparison to houseless males and these percent values for the females were 75.00 and for the males were 60.54.

The percentage distribution of data pertaining to houseless population which has migrated from the various blocks of the Kanpur Nagar district to the Kanpur city depicts that nearly one-third proportion (62.37 percent) of the houseless population has been originated in the Kalyanpur block (Kanpur city itself is part of this block) out of the total migrants. Other blocks from where in-migrants have come were Ghatampur (3.54 percent), Chaubepur (2.78 percent), Bilhaur (2.27 percent), Vidhunu (2.02 percent), Patara (1.77 percent), Kakwan (1.52 percent), Shivrajpur (1.52 percent), Bhitargaon (1.26 percent) and Sarsal (0.76 percent), whereas the place of origin of more than twenty percent houseless migrants could not be known due to mental illness, forgetting the name of blocks, reluctance, etc.

The percent distribution of data of houseless population migrated from tahsils of Kanpur Nagar district shows that Kanpur tahsil (Kanpur city itself is part of this tahsil) was, by far, the greatest contributor of houseless migrants in the city because houseless migrants originated in this tahsil constituted not less than 67.41 percent of the total migrants from other tahsils of Kanpur Nagar district. Each tahsils of Bilhaur and Ghatampur accounted 6.47 percent houseless migrants, whereas 19.65 percent houseless migrants did not know from where they have come, due to causes as mentioned in case of places of origin in the blocks of Kanpur Nagar district.

The distribution of data regarding houseless population that migrated from different districts of Uttar Pradesh as well as of other states of India presents that more than one-fifth (23.72 percent) houseless people have originated within the Kanpur Nagar district (Kanpur city itself is part of this district), wherein the share of houseless female migrants predominated over the male migrants because the distance was inversely related with the volume of migration in general and for female migration in particular. The three districts namely Kanpur Nagar, Unnao, and Fatehpur accounted more than forty percent of the total houseless migrants among those who migrated from different districts of Uttar Pradesh and of other states.

The data about percent distribution of houseless population that migrated from different states of India designates that more than four-fifth (88.78 percent) proportion of houseless migrants, out of the total migrants from various states of India, has originated within the state of Uttar Pradesh, followed by Bihar (3.13 percent), Maharashtra (0.58 percent), Madhya Pradesh (0.51 percent), West Bengal (0.44 percent) and other states (0.87 percent). The houseless migrants whose places of origin were not known accounted 5.68 percent.

The data about the percentage distribution of houseless population who emigrated from different countries to the Kanpur city show that among all the houseless migrants who have been found in the Kanpur city during the survey, more than 99 percent (i.e. 99.34 percent) have their places of origin in various parts of India. The other countries, from where, the houseless people immigrated to the city were Nepal and Bangladesh, their respective share of houseless immigrants being 0.59 and 0.07 percent.

The percent distribution of houseless population by places of origin exhibits that the majority of houseless people who have been found in the Kanpur city have their places of origin in different districts of Uttar Pradesh excluding Kanpur Nagar district (60.34 percent), followed by houseless people from within the Kanpur city (18.40 percent), within Kanpur

Nagar district excluding Kanpur city (10.63 percent), within Indian states excluding Uttar Pradesh (9.97 percent) and other countries (0.66 percent).

The percent distribution of data about the push factors of houseless migration provides information that the economic reasons, by far, predominate as the major push factor of houseless migration, compared to other factors i.e. biological and natural calamities as pushing factors of migration. The economic push factors accounted 92.16 percent share among all factors responsible for houseless out-migration, followed by the social factors (5.83 percent), biological factors (1.76 percent) and natural calamities (0.25 percent).

The percentage distribution of data about social push factors of migration of houseless population depicts that more than two-third houseless migrants have migrated from their native places towards the Kanpur city due to the non-availability of houses and/or space. More than two-third of the houseless migrants were found to have migrated because of having no family or due to family tensions, and/or after marriage. It means that among all the social push factors, no house/space, no family, family tensions and marriage taken together were found responsible for more than three-fourth (i.e. 78.59 percent) proportion of the houseless migrants in the city.

The data regarding the economic push factors of houseless migration envisage that the prevalence of unemployment at the places of origin of the houseless population has resulted in nearly one-fifth (20.37 percent) houselessness in the city, absence of regular work and low wages produced 28.85 percent houseless migrants subsequently, along with landlessness (9.95 percent), late payment (9.44 percent), and poverty (9.06 percent) also significantly contributing 28.45 percent houseless persons in the city.

The data pertaining to biological push factors of migration of houseless population depict very clearly that mental illness was the main detrimental push factor of migration which recorded 95.35 percent share, followed by parents' illness/death (2.33 percent), and blindness and depression (1.16 percent each). The houseless male migrants were produced by a number of factors including mental illness (94.03 percent), parents' illness/death (2.99 percent), blindness and depression (1.49 percent each), whereas houseless female migrants were hundred percent decided by the mental illness.

An assessment of the data enumerating various push factors of out-migration of houseless population indicates that among the socio-economic causes of migration, the ratio of economic causes exceeded that of social causes; economic factors also happened to be more in

number than the social factors excluding the category of others. The economic push factors namely unemployment, absence of regular work, low wages, landlessness, late payment, poverty, arduous nature of work, small land-holdings and lack of civic amenities compelled more than four-fifth proportion of houseless population (86.33 percent) to migrate from their places of origin towards the city, whereas the social causes like shyness to work, no house/space, mental illness and absence of family impelled only 10.05 percent persons to migrate while other factors recorded merely 3.62 percent share.

The distribution of data on the pull factors of in-migration of houseless population in the Kanpur city reveals that more than nine-tenth (95.33 percent) houseless migrants in the city were pulled by the economic factors, followed by the social factors (2.83 percent) and biological factors (1.85 percent). The percent distribution of data about social pull factors of migration of houseless population exhibits that more than three-fifth (61.29 percent) of the houseless migrants came to the Kanpur city for the entertainment purpose while one-fourth (25.81 percent) came for marriage. Among others, 12.90 percent houseless migrants have come to the city due to relatives and parents (4.03 percent each), education (2.42 percent), and friends (0.81 percent), whereas 1.61 percent houseless migrants were found to have migrated un-intentionally i.e. without any specific reason.

The percent distribution of economic pull factors of migration of houseless population in the Kanpur city shows that the more than two-fifth (40.35 percent) houseless in-migrants was primarily employment oriented (i.e. jobs and regular work). Furthermore, more than one-fourth (28.67 percent) houseless in-migration was mainly determined by income, namely high wages and quick payment, while remaining houseless in-migrants were attracted by the civic facilities (9.25 percent), pomp & glare of the city (6.29 percent), decent nature of work (6.12 percent), nearness to the city (3.71 percent) cheap city (3.23 percent) and others (2.39 percent). The data about the biological pull factors of migration indicate that more than ninth-tenth (91.36 percent) houseless in-migration has been due to mental illness, followed by health services (7.41 percent) and depression (1.23 percent). An analysis of the data of various socio-economic pull factors of in-migration of houseless population in the city indicates that more than one-fifth houseless in-migrants in the city were job/employment oriented. The jobs, regular work and high wages, in aggregate, pulled more than half houseless in-migrants in the city.

The percent distribution of data about the causes of houselessness in the Kanpur city depicts that nearly three-fourth (72.11 percent) proportion of the houseless population in the city was the upshot of the economic reasons while more than one-fifth (23.73 percent) people became houseless due to social causes, followed by the biological factors (3.97 percent) and natural calamities (0.19 percent). It means that in spite of being a social phenomenon, the problem of houselessness has most of its regulative genes in economic arena; therefore, the diagnostic parameters too have to be focused more towards the economic dimensions of the problem in order to sweep it out.

An examination of data about percent distribution of the social causes of houselessness expresses that among these causes, instability and no family are the major social factors in the city which accounted nearly one-third (31.91 percent) share of houseless population. The combined proportion of four social factors, namely instability, no family, no siblings, no proof of ID, produced 56.60 percent houselessness in the city. Data about the economic causes of houselessness highlight the fact that high rent of housing, mortgage, low income and poverty were the principal detrimental factors which caused more than half (56.63 percent) of the total houselessness in the city. The economic causes which produced more than five percent but less than ten percent houselessness in the city were enumerated as remittances, to support the family, after coming to Kanpur city, unemployment and high price level and they have combinedly resulted in 37.89 percent houselessness.

The percent distribution of data about biological causes of houselessness discloses the fact that among these causes, more than half (59.27 percent) of the houseless persons in the city were the outcome of poor health, because people with poor health can neither get daily work nor have the capacity to do hard work; thus being unable to retain in the shelter, they come down on the streets as houseless people. Second most important cause of houselessness was the mental illness which contributed more than one-fourth proportion (27.05 percent) of the houseless population, followed by physical disability (6.69 percent), depression (5.17 percent), old age (0.91 percent), accidents (0.61 percent) and hospital referrals (0.30 percent).

The percentage distribution of data about the various socio-economic causes of houselessness in the Kanpur city exhibits that more than one-fifth (23.53 percent) of the houselessness in the city was the outcome of only two causes, namely high rent of housing and low income of the people. In addition to it, nearly one-fourth (24.35 percent) proportion of houseless population was the direct upshot of three factors i.e. mortgage (8.84 percent),

poverty (8.47 percent) and remittances to homes (7.04 percent). The greater proportion of female houselessness was predominated by the causes like poverty, high price level, no family, no siblings, poor health, no relatives, social persecution stigmatisation, mental illness and others factors in comparison to male houselessness, while reverse condition was witnessed in other remaining causes of houselessness.

The percent distribution of data about the places of living and sleeping for the houseless population in Kanpur city depicts that one-third (33.30 percent) houseless population was found to be living/sleeping on the pavements. The ledges of shops or house were also good options for the houseless people particularly in the market areas to sleep in the night and accounted 22.42 percent, but in the residential areas, houseless people got disturbances by the local people. Nonetheless, 16.04 percent houseless people also used to live in the streets of residential colonies where they got enough space in different wards of the city, followed by road dividers (5.86 percent), night shelters (4.50 percent), parks (3.15 percent), anywhere (2.58 percent), courtyards of worship places (1.97 percent), market corridors (1.62 percent), under bridges (1.53 percent), public grounds (0.74 percent) and others (6.29 percent).

Data regarding the shifting frequency of houseless population from one living place to another in their whole life indicate nearly one-third (33.38 percent) of the houseless population was found to have shifted their living place two times, , while about one-fourth (24.28 percent) of these people witnessed to have shifted once in their life. Moreover, the people who have changed their place of residence for three times (17.77 percent) and four times (8.38 percent) in their life together constituted more than one-fourth (26.15 percent) of the houseless population in the city, whereas the houseless persons who have shifted from five times to more than ten times altogether accounted only 9.39 percent. The crucial section of houseless population which has never changed its place of living all through the life registered just 1.95 percent, whereas 4.84 percent of the houseless persons used to change their place of living everyday because they have no fixed places for regular living and sleeping due to mental illness, begging, rickshaw pulling, etc.

The percent distribution of houseless people who ever lived in a house in their life provides information that more than four-fifth (83.39 percent) of the houseless people has once lived in a house in their lifetime. The proportion of houseless males who have lived in house at any time in their life exceeded the houseless females. It means that the ratio of

houseless females (36.79 percent) who have not ever experienced the life in the shelter is higher than the houseless males (14.93 percent).

The distribution of data about the duration of houselessness shows that the majority of houseless people in the city (38.21 percent) have been unable to access any shelter ever, always being forced to live as houseless on footpaths. The highest proportion was registered by the people who have been able to get chance to live in the shelter within one month i.e. 21.92 percent, followed by the people living in the shelter after 1 to 2 months (13.97 percent), 2 to 4 months (6.95 percent), 4 to 6 months (4.85 percent), 6 to 8 months (2.82 percent), 8 to 10 months (1.74 percent) and 10 to 12 months (1.30 percent), while remaining 8.25 percent population includes those who got the opportunity to live in the shelter after a few years, as 6.73 percent houseless persons used to go to meet their families and relatives (living in the shelter) after 1 to 5 years, and 1.52 percent dwelt after 5 years.

A close scrutiny of the percent distribution of data on duration of houselessness in years experienced by the houseless population in Kanpur city shows that the people who were houseless since their birth accounted a significant proportion (14.44 percent). The females who have been houseless since their birth exceeded the males. The study reveals that three-fourth proportion of houseless population fall under the categories of people who have been houseless for less than 5 years upto 30 years excluding those who have been houseless since birth and for above 30 years. The people who spent their life as houseless for more than 30 years (i.e. from 30-35 to above 50 years) composed 11.47 percent of the total houseless population.

The Chapter seven has been concerned to examine the various socio-economic problems faced by houseless population in the city. The data about the interruptions in sleeping/living faced by the houseless population show that 87.40 percent of these people reported interruptions in their sleeping and/or living, females having experienced greater rate of interruption in their sleeping/living than the males, their respective figures being 90.65 and 87.12 percent.

The data about the causes of interruptions faced by houseless population in sleeping and living presents the fact that one of the most important causes of interruption has been the inclement weather which is faced by 17.23 percent of the houseless population, followed by the fear of theft, violence & death (16.21percent) as a cause of interruption for houseless people during sleeping/living at the footpaths. These two factors together have been

responsible for causing inconvenience to one-third (33.44 percent) of the houseless persons while living and/or sleeping at the informal places. The air pollution and mosquitoes also significantly interrupted the course of living/sleeping of the houseless people, accounting 9.84 and 8.75 percent respectively as the causes of interruption. It means that only these four causes of interruption, namely the inclement weather, fear of theft, violence & death, air pollution and mosquitoes, have altogether affected more than half (52.03 percent) of the houseless population in comparison to all other remaining causes of interruptions.

The percent distribution of data about the bad habits among the houseless population exhibits that the majority of such people was substance addicted, in which, houseless males were more addicted than the houseless females. Out of the total houseless population selected for study, 87.34 percent people have been reported as the victims of bad habits, with only remaining 12.66 percent houseless persons being not engaged in any bad habit. The respective figures for addicted houseless males and females were 90.48 and 30.48 percent. Out of those who were found to have been involved in bad habits, more than two-fifth (41.16 percent) chewed tobacco and more than one-fourth (28.90 percent) used to smoke the cigarettes, cigars, pipes, *beedis*, etc., followed by those drinking liquor (15.05 percent), addicted to drugs (1.35 percent) and others (0.90 percent).

An elaborate account of the data about the prevalence of various diseases among the houseless respondents provides information that the health problems were extremely high among them. More than half (i.e. 60.38 percent) of the houseless respondents was found prostrated to various diseases, with only 39.62 percent being physically fit and fine. Among the morbid houseless respondents, five diseases were found to be most common and prevalent, namely asthma, skin infestation, foot problems, back ache and gastroenteritis, which engraved/inflicted more than one-fourth of the houseless persons.

The data about the morbidities prevalent among the houseless households' family members show that the proportion of diseased population (2.79 percent) is very negligible among houseless households' family members, and the ratios of diseased male-female houseless households' family members are 3.19 and 2.15 percent respectively. Among the morbid houseless households' family members, one-third were handicapped, followed by those suffering from asthma and stomach ailment 11.11 percent each; arthritis, hypertension and cataract 7.41 percent each; and migraine, weakness, leprosy, throat pain, skin infestation, mental illness and tuberculosis 3.70 percent each.

The distribution of data regarding physically disabled houseless population shows that out of the total sampled houseless population, 11.67 percent was physically disabled in which the ratios of males and females were 11.57 and 12.96 percent respectively. Among the physically disabled houseless people, 6.82 percent were handicapped by legs, followed by those having paraplegia (1.48 percent), deaf and handicapped by hands 1.13 percent each, blindness (0.91 percent) and polio (0.21 percent).

The inspection of data about the mental illness among houseless population in Kanpur city depicts that less than one-fifth (17.25 percent) of the houseless population was found to be mentally ill, while more than eighty percent (82.75 percent) was mentally fit and fine. The ratio of mentally ill houseless males and females was 14.22 and 45.77 percent respectively. Among the mental illnesses suffered by the houseless population in the city, depression and trauma were most common which accounted 6.77 and 5.01 percent respectively, followed by solitude (2.50 percent), anxiety (2.17 percent), sleeplessness (0.54 percent), and suicide inclination (0.27 percent). The proportion of each type of mental illness was higher among the houseless females than the males.

The percentage distribution of data about the daily problems faced by houseless population unfolds the fact that houseless population faced a lot of infrastructural problems (46.20 percent), followed by the economic problems (36.61 percent), and social problems (17.18 percent). Houseless females were found more prone to social problems rather than economic and infrastructural problems whereas houseless males were confronted more with the economic and infrastructural problems in comparison to social problems.

The percental distribution of data about the daily social problems faced by the houseless population describes that among all the social problems, police harassment or brutality and municipal torment registered more than one-third (34.88 percent) and one-fifth (22.70 percent) share respectively. Hunger (17.44 percent) and torture by local people (16.92 percent) also contributed significantly to the daily social problems of the houseless population, followed by violence (7.66 percent), drunkards (0.23 percent) and lack of education (0.17 percent).

It would be seen from the data about the economic problems faced daily by the houseless population that one-fourth proportion of houseless population is occupied each by unemployment, low wages and poor hygiene; it means that 80.73 percent houseless people were daily confronted with these three problems predominantly among all daily economic

problems faced by these people. Poverty was also one of the significant economic problems, found to be affecting 14.57 percent houseless persons in the study area.

The percentage of data about the infrastructural problems daily faced by the houseless population reveals that more than one-fourth (26.69 percent) of the houseless persons faced the problem of the lack of shelter to sleep daily in their life and nearly one-fourth (24.47 percent) proportion of the houseless people were confronted daily with the lack of toilet facilities in the city. Lack of water (22.23 percent) and no fire ground in winter (13.29 percent) also posed infrastructural problems for more than one-third houseless people, followed significantly by the lack of clothes (11.91 percent) and the lack of fans i.e. having no fans in the night shelter homes (1.06 percent).

The overall analysis of various problems faced daily by the houseless population in Kanpur city illustrates that the lack of shelter, lack of toilet facilities, unemployment and lack of water were the main problems, with which 44.44 percent houseless people were confronted daily in their life, followed by low wages (9.6 percent), poor hygiene (9.48 percent), no fire grounds in winter (6.14 percent), police harassment (5.99 percent), lack of clothes (5.50 percent), poverty (5.33 percent), municipal torment (3.90 percent), hunger (3.00 percent), torture by local people (2.91 percent), payment (1.62 percent), violence (1.32 percent) and others (0.78 percent).

The data about the inclement seasons faced by the houseless population show that 97.05 houseless persons felt season's inclementness while 2.95 percent houseless persons have comfortable life in all the seasons. The proportion of houseless males and females confronted with season's inclementness was 96.97 and 97.84 percent respectively. The rainy season was reported as the most inclement weather (41.80 percent) faced by the houseless population, followed by winter season (27.65 percent) and summer season (27.60 percent).

The data about the expressive ties felt by the houseless population depict that nearly one-fifth (19.56 percent) of the houseless population was socially disaffiliated while more than four-fifth (80.44 percent) was found to be socially affiliated in the city. Among the socially affiliated houseless population, one-third (33.74 percent) houseless people have their expressive ties with their siblings/wives, and one-fourth (25.66 percent) with their parents, subsequently followed by the relatives (11.37 percent), close non-local friends (4.73 percent), close local friends (3.74 percent), and group of people (1.21 percent).

The percent distribution of data about the need of security felt by the houseless population exhibits that a huge proportion (96.09 percent) of the houseless population needs security from different kinds of humiliations and disturbances in its daily life, with only a very small fraction of houseless population (3.91 percent) which reported to have no need for security. The need for security was demanded more by the houseless males (96.24 percent) rather than the females (94.40 percent), because the houseless males were found more as individuals rather than in families, while high ratio of the houseless females was identified either as the members of the houseless families or mentally ill. Among the houseless population who felt the need for security, nearly one-fourth houseless persons needed protection from each of the public harassment and police chasing, followed by the municipal torment (14.79 percent), traffic (11.79 percent), aggression (8.88 percent), noise (7.46 percent), disputes (3.58 percent) and A to Z society (1.03 percent).

The data regarding the nature of behaviour of the people towards the houseless population reveal that most of the general population of the city expressed a negative attitude and bad behaviour towards the houseless persons instead of having a sympathetic attitude which they deserve because of being poor and thus rough sleepers. About three-fourth (74.77 percent) proportion of the houseless people reported very ill-treatment by the general population while only one-fourth (25.23 percent) share of houseless persons was found to have received good treatment by the general population. Among the ill-treatment met by the houseless population, police intervention (45.35 percent) was found to be the greatest threat and problem, while more than one-fourth proportion (25.63 percent) of houseless population was also confronted with the negative behaviour of various other officials (municipal people, leaders, transport officers, shelter in-charges, park security men, bus stands & railway station security men, etc.). The remaining share of houseless persons (29.02 percent) was found exposed to the negative behaviour by various gangs (15.25 percent) and local people (13.77 percent).

An examination of data about the nature of experience (in terms of good or bad) which the houseless population has at various occasions shows that nearly one-third (32.77 percent) of the houseless population registered the occasions like VIP visits, national festivals and various functions/ceremonies as a good experience, whereas two-third (67.28 percent) of these people experienced such occasions negatively i.e. as a bad experience. Among those who experienced such occasions negatively, more than half (54.97 percent) were badly affected by

the various VIP visits, followed by those affected by the national festivals (29.90 percent) and various functions/ceremonies (15.12 percent).

The Chapter eight was an attempt to analyse the accessibility of houseless population in terms of infrastructural facilities and amenities in Kanpur city. The percent distribution of data about the relatives of houseless population who have houses to live in shows that the majority of the relatives of these houseless people (84.45 percent) was found to be housed, i.e. living in houses, whereas 15.55 percent of their relatives were found houseless like them, thus showing the magnitude of houselessness in various other parts of the country as well.

The data about the availability of durable goods to the houseless population shows that more than fourth-fifth (84.32 percent) of the houseless population in the city possessed only some basic durable goods, in which more than one-fourth (29.70 percent) houseless people possessed only bedding items. More than one-fifth (20.15 percent) of the houseless people have pots like bowls, glasses, plates, spoons, small buckets, etc. it means that nearly half of the houseless persons have only two durable goods i.e. bedding items and pots/utensils, with 5.31 percent houseless people using cots as their bedding, thus bedding items and cots providing bedding for more than one-third of the houseless population. Among other durable goods, mobile phones were also found being possessed by a significant proportion (8.23 percent) of houseless population, followed by those who possessed cookers (4.80 percent), mats (3.87 percent), stoves (2.92 percent), hand watches (2.84 percent), cycles (1.40 percent) and others durable goods (5.09 percent).

The data about the sharing items (items shared by houseless people with each others) possessed by the houseless population depict that more than one-fourth of the houseless population (29.86 percent) have scarves/*lungi/gumchha* each as sharing items, followed by blankets (25.16 percent), and pots (25.08 percent). The toiletry items and quilts were possessed by 11.30 and 6.00 percent houseless people respectively, while 2.61 percent houseless people in the city did not have any sharing item.

Analysis of the data about percent distribution of the pairs of wearing clothes possessed by the houseless population reveals that more than half (52.16 percent) of the houseless people have only one pair of wearing clothes, about two-fifth (40.65 percent) of the houseless persons possess two pairs of wearing clothes, with only 7.19 percent houseless people having more than two pairs. The ratio of houseless males having two or more than two pairs of wearing clothes exceeded the ratio of houseless females.

A detailed account of percent distribution of the types and sources of drinking water available for the houseless population presents the fact that more than three-fourth (76.33 percent) of the houseless population in Kanpur city fulfills its need for drinking water from the public sources, while only more than one-fifth (23.67 percent) of the houseless people have access to drinking water from private sources. Among the sources of drinking water in the city, nearly half of the houseless population has been found to have drinking water from the hand-pumps and one-fourth from the water-tapes. In the remaining approximately one-fourth houseless population, 5.66 percent houseless persons have been found quenching their thirst by purchasing water-pouches, followed by those having their drinking water needs fulfilled through water-coolers (4.44 percent), hotels (3.44 percent), submersibles (2.70 percent), water-tankers (2.39 percent), tube-wells (2.31 percent) and others (4.27 percent).

The percent distribution of data regarding the location of drinking water sources in terms of distance travelled by houseless population to reach them evidences that more than one-third of the houseless population has travelled less than 50 metres, with one-fourth having travelled 50 to 100 metres distance to collect the drinking water in the city. It means that for 63.08 percent houseless people, the sources of drinking water were available within the circumference of 100 metres area from their places of living.

The data regarding the types and sources of bathing places for the houseless population, in terms of open or close and public or private, provides information that more than four-fifth (84.20 percent) of the houseless population used to bathe in the open places (i.e. at hand-pumps, water-tapes, submersibles and temples) rather than the closed places (viz., *sulabh shauchalayas* and night shelters). Regarding the use of public and private bathing places by the houseless population, more than four-fifth (86.78 percent) of houseless people were found using public places for bathing, with only 12.22 percent persons taking their bath at private places. In addition to it, among the sources of bathing places, more than half (54.47 percent) of the houseless population used to bath at hand-pumps as well as more than one-fourth (28.80 percent) was found using water-tapes for bathing, followed by those having bath at *sulabh complexes* (9.96 percent), night shelters (3.29 percent), temples (2.10 percent) and submersibles (1.39 percent).

The distribution of data about the distance travelled by houseless population to reach the bathing places exhibits that more than one-fourth share of the houseless population is registered each under the category of people who have to travel a distance of less than 50

metres and from 50 to 100 metres in order to take bath, while nearly one-fifth of these people used to go for bathing at a distance of 100 to 200 metres. It means that for about three-fourth (74.27 percent) of the houseless persons, bathing facilities were available within the perimeter of 200 metres.

The data about frequency of baths taken by the houseless population demonstrate that nearly half fraction (51.48 percent) of houseless population in the city used to bathe daily, whereas more than one-third (36.80 percent) of the houseless persons were found to be bathing only 2 to 3 times in a week, followed by the people who took bath only once in a week (7.66 percent), 1 to 2 times in a month (3.36 percent), while 0.69 percent houseless persons were found to have never bathed.

An elaborate account of percentile distribution of data on the types and sources of the places for defecation for the houseless population shows that more than half (54.50 percent) of the houseless persons defecated in the closed spaces against those who used to defecate in the open spaces (45.50 percent). The respective figures for houseless males were 42.67 and 57.33 percent, and for females 78.69 and 21.31 percent. Among the sources of the places for defecation, most suitable and preferred were *sulabh complexes* which were opted by more than one-third (36.32 percent) of the houseless people, whereas each of nearly one-fifth proportion of the houseless people preferred to use open fields (21.15 percent) and pavements (19.71 percent) for defecation, subsequently followed by those using sewers' lines (13.41 percent), railway tracts (6.52 percent), night shelter toilets (2.63 percent), and make-shift toilets (0.25 percent).

The percentage distribution of the activities of houseless population during non-working days exhibits that more than one-fourth (29.94 percent) of the houseless people used to utilise their non-working days for personal maintenance like washing the clothes, shaving, hair-cutting, bathing, purchasing daily use goods, etc., whereas one-fourth (25.70 percent) used to relax during this period and took rest after working for few days. Nearly ten percent houseless people passed their time during non-working days each by gossiping, meeting friends, family & relatives, and sleeping, followed by those involved in recreation (5.37 percent) and part-time work (4.75 percent), while 2.23 percent houseless people did not give any response in this regard.

The percentile distribution of data regarding recreational activities of the houseless population gives the information that only one-fourth houseless population reported to have

some recreational activities at certain points of time, while three-fourth share of houseless persons was found deprived of any kind of recreation in their life. Another notable point is that not a single houseless female in the city reported to have any recreational activity which implies that only houseless males could have any opportunity of recreation, though in negligible proportion. The recreational activities of the houseless people (26.32 percent of the total houseless population in the city) who happened to have some sort of recreation in their life include watching television (15.59 percent), going to cinema sometimes (9.73 percent), and others (1.00 percent) like listening radio (0.60 percent), picnics (0.27 percent) and playing cards (0.13 percent).

Percentage distribution of data regarding the help/assistance received in emergency by the houseless population indicates that at the time of emergencies, more than half (53.79 percent) of the houseless people received help from their friends, family members, relatives, different individuals and others while less than fifty percent (46.21 percent) of the houseless persons didn't have any source of help to be assisted at the time of some emergency. Out of the total houseless population who received help in emergency, about one-fourth have been helped by different individuals like employers, passers-by, social help groups, policemen, propitiators, etc. Friends were the second most important source of help for houseless people as 14.70 percent houseless people were found to have been helped by their friends during emergency, followed by those helped by family (6.02 percent), relatives (5.40 percent), and others (1.44 percent).

The data about the government services received by the houseless population reveal that fifty percent houseless population has availed only a few selected basic government services like voter identity cards (ID cards), ration cards, below poverty line cards (BPL cards), unique identification cards (UID cards), pensions, mid-day meal in schools, handicapped certificates, bank accounts and various gifts. Among the houseless population who availed the governmental services, more than half (51.06 percent) have voter ID cards in which only 7.89 percent persons use to carry their voter ID cards with them wherever they go, live and sleep which shows their consciousness about life. Likewise, more than one-third of houseless people (44.50 percent) have ration cards wherein merely 9.13 percent houseless persons possessed the ration cards with them. The houseless BPL card bearers have been accounted only 2.13 percent, followed by UID card holders (1.06 percent) and others (1.24 percent).

9.2. Conclusions

9.2.1. Socio-economic characteristics of houseless population

- (i) Houselessness has been seen as individuals' problem rather than the problem of houseless families because out of the total sample of houseless households surveyed i.e. 1384, only 228 houseless households have been registered as the houseless with families, while 1156 houseless households have been identified as individual houseless persons, their families living either at their places of origin or having no family at all.
- (ii) There is a usual misconception among the general population that houselessness is mainly the outcome of mental illness, but the study finds that the problem of houselessness is found primarily among the population of normal mental status (93.00 percent) rather than among mentally ill people (7.00 percent).
- (iii) The proportion of houseless male population is exceedingly much greater than the houseless female population in the city which proved that the facet of houselessness in the urban world is male oriented because out of the total houseless respondents in the city, 91.79 percent were males and only 8.21 percent were females.
- (iv) A large mass of houseless population lies in the working age-group (19-64 years of age), while a little fraction of houseless respondents is composed of the juvenile (below 19 years of age) and senile (above 65 years of age) population because nearly 89.00 percent houseless persons belong to the adult age-groups, whereas the juvenile and senile respondents together accounted only 11.07 percent. But the proportion of juvenile houseless population (59.00 percent) among the houseless households' family members has been exponentially higher in comparison to senile and adult age-group houseless respondents.
- (v) About fifty percent houseless people were married and the ratio of married and unmarried houseless males is one and half times more than the houseless females. But among the widowed and separated/divorced houseless persons, houseless females registered greater ratio than the males, namely four times among the widowed and nearly double among the separated/divorced of that of males.
- (vi) Hindus are found to be in majority among all houseless population, seven times which of the Muslims as they accounted 82.84 percent, while Muslims and other religious communities are identified 11.75 and 0.29 percent respectively.

- (vii) The majority of houseless population is composed of OBC people, followed by the general category population, scheduled castes population and scheduled tribes population, as the houseless people of OBC category outnumbered the houseless persons of general as well as ST categories.
- (viii) The rate of illiteracy among the houseless respondents is very high as only 38.58 percent houseless people are literates, in which more than two-third have their education only upto the primary level. The proportion of illiteracy among the houseless households' family members is even much higher than that of houseless respondents; among literate houseless households' family members, number of people educated upto primary level is almost four times greater than the total proportion of secondary, senior secondary and graduate people in the city.
- (ix) Among the socio-economic and biological reasons responsible for the illiteracy of houseless people, about three-fifth illiteracy rate is determined by economic reasons, followed by social (36.34 percent) and biological (4.29 percent) reasons of illiteracy.
- (x) Most of the houseless respondents are observed as working population, the ratio of houseless workers being exceeded to that of houseless non-workers. Moreover, the ratio of workers among houseless males is recorded even much higher than that of non-workers i.e. 87.75 and 12.25 percent, whereas, it is noted to be vice versa among the houseless females viz., 45.28 and 54.72 percent. Moreover, maximum proportion of non-workers (25.08 percent) has been recorded among houseless households' family members in comparison to workers (74.92 percent).
- (xi) Unfortunately, most of the houseless workers (87.39 percent) are found to be unskilled and, thus, engaged in petty works like rickshaw pulling, rag picking, street vending, loading & un-loading, cooking, cobbling, construction works, etc.
- (xii) More than ninety percent houseless workers are recorded as daily workers in comparison to permanent and seasonal workers because these people neither have same type of work on a regular basis, nor have continuity of working days in any type of work due to limited employment opportunities for them.
- (xiii) Mental illness (23.01 percent) is observed as the main cause of unemployment for the non-working houseless population. Likewise, the lack of jobs and poor health also constitute more or less same negative restrictive barriers for the houseless non-

workers in the way of getting employed, figuring out 21.02 and 18.18 percent respectively.

- (xiv) In the professional activities, more than two-third of the houseless workers are found occupied with three activities, namely rickshaw pulling, construction works and begging, with the remaining proportion of houseless working population being engaged in activities like loading & un-loading, rag picking, serving as waiters, street vending, owing *pan masala khokha*, etc.
- (xv) More than fifty percent houseless workers are found able to get employment regularly for the whole month, while 3.62, 12.36, and 10.05 percent have reported to have worked respectively for 29-25 days, 24-20 days, and 19-15 days per month, whereas 13.74 percent are recorded as unable to get any work throughout the month.
- (xvi) The maximum proportion of houseless working population use to work for 8 to 10 hours per day, followed by those working for 10 to 12 hours per day, their combined share accounting to 65.22 percent. Moreover, 54.23 percent houseless persons are found to have availed employment opportunities for the whole year, with 13.74 percent having no access to any type of work all through their life.
- (xvii) The houseless respondents surveyed in the city have less than rupees three thousand per capita income (₹ 2885.25) per month. On the other hand, more than fifty percent houseless persons have ₹ 50-100 per day expenditure, followed by those having daily expenditure of less than ₹ 50 (22.47 percent), ₹ 100-150 (15.82 percent), ₹ 150-200 (2.31 percent), and above ₹ 200 (1.52 percent), with 7.08 percent houseless people having no expenditure at all.
- (xviii) The houseless persons who remitted some part of their income to their homes, regularly and irregularly, are recorded to be more than sixty percent, whereas nearly forty percent did never remit any amount of money.
- (xix) A remarkable proportion (94.01 percent) of houseless population has incurred monthly expenditure on food while 5.99 percent happen to have no food expenditure at all. Regarding expenditure on clothing, 82.27 percent houseless persons were found to have spent on their clothing against 17.73 percent who spent nothing on clothing. In case of medical and health services, 60.00 percent people have monthly expenditure while 40.00 percent have incurred no expenditure in this regard. In the field of education, only 4.54 percent were found to have spent for the cause whereas

95.46 percent witnessed no expenditure on education. For the miscellaneous category, 94.07 percent have expenses on the miscellaneous things against 5.93 percent being recorded to have no miscellaneous expenses. Moreover, more than three-fourth (76.07 percent) expenditure done by the houseless people goes to food, followed by miscellaneous category (18.83 percent), clothing (4.24 percent), medical services (0.58 percent) and education (0.28 percent).

- (xx) More than one-third (35.37 percent) of the houseless people used to pay money to the space owners for living & sleeping at places like footpaths, for bathing, drinking water & defecation services, whereas 7.03 percent houseless persons use these places by offering their services in exchange like taking up the responsibility of security of the shops & houses where they live in or doing some domestic chores, etc. of the space owners.

9.2.2. Determinants of migration of houseless population

- (i) Out of the total houseless households surveyed, more than ninety percent have been found to be migrants, in which 92.35 percent are males and 7.05 percent are females.
- (ii) Most of the houseless people who have originated within Kanpur city have migrated from other wards of the city (62.15 percent) to those wards where the survey was carried out in comparison to those having belonged to the same ward (37.85 percent).
- (iii) Among the houseless persons who have originated in various blocks of Kanpur Nagar district, nearly one-third (62.37 percent) have been originated only in the Kalyanpur block (Kanpur city itself is part of this block), while more than twenty percent do not know their place of origin, remaining having migrated from other blocks of the district.
- (iv) Among the houseless people who have originated in different tahsils of Kanpur Nagar district, about two-third (67.41 percent) have originated in Kanpur tahsil (Kalyanpur block itself is part of this tahsil) and 19.65 percent happen to be ignorant of their places of origin.
- (v) The houselessness originated in the city, is brought from different districts of India, in which, more than one-fifth (23.72 percent) houseless people have originated within the Kanpur Nagar district. Further, the Kanpur Nagar district, Unnao and Fatehpur districts produces more than forty percent (40.46 percent) houseless migrants out of the total migrants migrated from different districts of India.

- (vi) More than four-fifth (88.78 percent) of the houseless migrants who have migrated from various states of India have originated within the state of Uttar Pradesh. Moreover, out of the total houseless migrants in the city, 99.34 percent have originated within India, with only 0.66 percent being supplied by two other countries namely, Nepal (0.59 percent) and Bangladesh (0.07 percent).
- (vii) The majority of the houseless population in the city has its places of origin in different districts of Uttar Pradesh excluding the Kanpur Nagar district (60.34 percent), followed by those having originated within the Kanpur city (18.40 percent), within the Kanpur Nagar district excluding the Kanpur city (10.63 percent), within Indian states excluding Uttar Pradesh (9.97 percent) and other countries (0.66 percent).
- (viii) The economic reasons (92.69 percent) predominated as push factors of houseless out-migration from their places of origin into the Kanpur city in comparison to social and biological factors (5.83 and 1.76 percent respectively), and natural calamities (0.25 percent). Among the economic pushing factors of out-migration, about fifty percent (49.22 percent) houseless people in the city are the outcome of unemployment, absence of regular work, and low wages at their places of origin, while among social pushing factors, more than three-fourth houseless migrants have migrated due to having no house/space, no family, family tensions and/or because of marriage. The mental illness (95.35 percent) is the main reason of out-migration among the biological pushing factors.
- (ix) Among the pulling factors of in-migration of houseless population, more than nine-tenth (95.33 percent) of the houseless in-migrants in the city are pulled by economic factors, with only a very little proportion being pulled by the social and biological factors (2.83 and 1.85 percent respectively). Moreover, among economic pull factors of in-migration of houseless population in the city, 40.35 percent houseless in-migrants have come for employment opportunities i.e. jobs and regular work and 28.67 percent for the income viz., high wages and quick payment, while entertainment and marriage among the social pull factors of in-migration have attracted 87.10 percent houseless people. The mental illness in the biological pull factors has resulted into 91.36 percent houseless in-migrants in the city.

9.2.3. Causes of houselessness

- (i) Nearly three-fourth (72.11 percent) of the houseless population in the city is the outcome of economic factors, and one-fifth (23.73 percent) of the social factors, while biological and natural calamities caused 3.97 and 0.19 percent houselessness respectively. Among the economic causes of houselessness in the city, the high rent of housing, mortgage, low income and poverty combinedly caused more than half (56.63 percent) of the houselessness in the city, while instability, no family, no siblings and no proof of ID among the social causes altogether also produced more than half (56.60 percent) incidence of houselessness in the city. More than fourth-fifth (86.32 percent) houselessness in the city is the result of poor health and mental illness among the biological causes of houselessness.
- (ii) About three-fourth (71.76 percent) of the houseless persons preferred to live and sleep on the pavements (33.30 percent), ledges of shops and houses (22.42 percent), and streets of residential colonies (16.04 percent). On the other hand, houseless people who have shifted their places of living once and twice recorded to be more than fifty percent (57.66 percent), while 1.95 percent houseless persons never changed their place, whereas 4.84 percent persons used to change their places of living on a daily basis. Moreover, the houseless people who have shifted their places of living from three times to more than ten times altogether accounted 35.54 percent.
- (iii) Among the houseless people who have gotten a chance to live in the house, more than fourth-fifth has lived in the house once upon a time in their life. Majority of houseless population (38.21 percent) has never been in the shelter, with one-third (35.89 percent) of houseless people having usually get the chance to live in house within a month or after 1 to 2 months, while 17.66 percent persons got the chance to live in the house after 2 to 12 months, whereas 8.25 percent got opportunity of the house life after 1-5 years and sometimes even after more than 5 years.
- (iv) The people who have been houseless since birth accounted 14.44 percent among the total houseless population in the city, with three-fourth proportion of houseless population having experienced the life of houselessness for less than 5 years to 30 years, whereas 11.47 percent houseless people have been living as houseless for more than 30 years.

9.2.4. Impact of houselessness on the life of houseless population

- (i) Out of the total houseless population, 87.40 houseless persons reported the interruptions in their sleeping and living. Among the causes of interruption, four were found to be predominant, namely inclement weather, air pollution, mosquitoes, and fear of theft, violence & death, which combinedly caused interruption to more than half (52.03 percent) of the houseless population.
- (ii) About nine-tenth (87.34 percent) of the houseless people have reported as the victims of bad habits, among these, nearly forty percent people used to chew tobacco; more than one-fourth have been indulged in smoking and 15.05 percent in drinking alcohol.
- (iii) Three-fifth of the houseless respondents is prostrated to various diseases. Among this morbid population, five diseases namely asthma, skin infestation, foot problems, back aches and gastroenteritis are the most common which causes illness to more than one-fourth of the houseless persons. While, the proportion of diseased houseless households' family members (2.79 percent) is very negligible, and the ratios of diseased male-female houseless households' family members are 3.19 and 2.15 percent respectively.
- (iv) More than one-tenth (11.67 percent) of the houseless population is physically disabled in which 6.82 percent are handicapped by legs. Among others, 17.25 percent houseless population is suffering from mental illness, in which depression (6.77 percent) and trauma (5.01 percent) are the most prevalent problems.
- (v) Houseless people have to face a lot of social, economic and infrastructural problems daily, their respective shares being 17.18, 36.61, and 46.20 percent. Among infrastructural problems, 73.39 percent houseless people confronted daily with the lack of shelter to live and sleep, lack of toilet facilities and water; among economic problems, 80.73 percent houseless persons faced daily the problems of unemployment, low wages, and poor hygiene; while more than one-third and one-fifth of the houseless people faced police brutality and municipal torment as daily social problems.
- (vi) Majority of houseless people (97.05 percent) felt the weather inclementness, in which the rainy season (41.80 percent) was reported more inclement than the winter (27.65 percent) and summer (27.60 percent).

- (vii) Nearly one-fifth of the houseless population is socially disaffiliated. However, among socially affiliated houseless people, about three-fifth (59.40 percent) have their expressive ties with their siblings/wives and parents.
- (viii) A huge proportion (96.09 percent) of houseless population needed security from various kinds of humiliation and disturbances in the life, wherein about one-fourth houseless persons needed protection each from public harassment and police brutality.
- (ix) About three-fourth (74.77 percent) houseless people reported to have faced very ill-treatment by the general population in which 45.35 percent persons faced the police brutality, 25.63 percent houseless people confronted ill treatment by the various officials, followed by gangs (15.25 percent), and torment by local people (13.77 percent).
- (x) The two-third (67.28 percent) of the houseless people reported to have bad experience at the occasions of VIP visits, festivals and various function, wherein more than half (54.97 percent) were badly affected alone by the VIP visits, followed by national festivals (29.90 percent) and other functions (15.12 percent).

9.2.5. Houselessness and infrastructure facilities

- (i) Most of the people the relatives of the houseless people (84.45 percent) have houses while 15.55 percent do not have houses. It shows the occurrence of the problem of houselessness in other areas as well.
- (ii) Only 84.45 percent houseless population possesses some basic durable goods in which 55.16 percent people possess only bedding items and cooking pots. Availability of mobile phones is also found in significant proportion (8.23 percent) among houseless people, followed by pressure cookers, mats, stoves, hand watches, cycles and others. On the other hand, more than one-fourth of the houseless population has the sharing items each of scarves/*lungi/gamchha*, blankets, and pots, while toiletry items and quilts are possessed by 11.30 and 6.00 percent houseless people respectively.
- (iii) Fifty percent houseless persons have only one pair of wearing clothes, followed by those having two pairs (40.65 percent), while more than two pairs of wearing clothes are possessed by only 7.19 percent houseless persons.

- (iv) The houseless people who have been taking the drinking water from public sources accounted three-fourth proportion, whereas 23.67 percent used private sources for drinking water. Further, among the sources of drinking water, about half of the houseless people took drinking water from hand-pumps and one-fourth from water-tapes, followed by those having their drinking water requirements fulfilled through water-coolers, hotels, submersibles, water-tankers, tube-wells and others. Moreover, the sources of drinking water for about two-third (63.08 percent) houseless persons are located within the circumference of 100 metres from their places of living.
- (v) Among the types of bathing places in terms of open and closed, 84.20 percent houseless population used to bathe in the open places, whereas 15.80 percent have access to the closed places for bathing. On the other hand, in terms of using public and private places for bathing, 86.78 percent houseless people bathed at the public places rather than private places (12.22 percent). Among the various bathing places, 83.27 percent houseless population used to bathe at the hand-pumps and water-tapes, followed by those bathing at *sulabh complexes* (9.96 percent), night shelter homes (3.29 percent), temples (2.10 percent) and submersibles (1.39 percent).
- (vi) The bathing facilities available for the houseless population in the city are located within the perimeter of 200 metres distance for three-fourth (74.27 percent) of the houseless population, while, remaining people have to travel for more than 200 metres. In addition to it, more than half of the houseless persons bathed daily, whereas more than one-third used to bathe 2 or 3 times in a week, followed by those bathing once in a week (7.66 percent) 1 or 2 times in a month (3.36 percent), and those who have never bathed (0.69 percent).
- (vii) Majority of the houseless people (54.50 percent) defecated in the closed spaces, whereas 45.50 percent have to use open spaces for defecation. Among the various places for defecation, more than one-third houseless people preferred *sulabh complexes* and about one-fifth houseless people defecated each in open fields and pavements, followed by those using sewer lines, railways tracts, night shelter homes toilets and make-shift toilets.
- (viii) During non-working days, more than half of the houseless people remain busy in personal maintenance and/or getting relaxed, and one-third persons passed their time in gossiping, meeting friends, family & relatives, and in sleeping.

- (ix) Only one-fourth houseless persons have some recreational activities in which 15.59 percent used to see television, 9.73 percent see the cinema, and one percent have interest in listening radio, going on picnics, and playing cards.
- (x) Houseless people who have some helping sources in case of emergency are accounted 53.79 percent, while 46.21 percent do not have any source to avail help during emergency. Among those who could access help in emergency, one-fourth houseless people received help from different individuals, followed by those having helped by friends (14.70 percent), family (6.02 percent), relatives (5.40 percent) and others (1.44 percent).
- (xi) Fifty percent houseless population availed some basic governmental services in which 51.66 percent houseless people have voter ID cards, more than one-third have the ration cards, 2.13 percent possessed the BPL cards, 1.06 percent bore the UID cards and only 1.24 percent have accessed various other governmental services.

9.3. Recommendations

From the foregoing observations and conclusions, it is possible to put forward some useful recommendations which, if adhered, can facilitate in enabling strategies for the houseless population. Most of the recommendations put forward for them in the country are invalid today. Attention is, therefore, drawn to them once again. Governments should be encouraged to revisit the recommendations and adhere to them accordingly, wherever appropriate. In this study, some of the relevant recommendations are restated, and some new ones are added as follows:

- (i) Notwithstanding, the problem of houselessness is the outcome of various socio-economic causes, but 97 houseless households were found houseless due to their mental illness out of the total surveyed houseless households (1384) in the city. Such mentally ill people have been identified in larger number particularly in Zone 1 (44 persons), Zone 2 (19 persons) and Zone 5 (14 persons) in comparison to other zones of the city. These mentally ill houseless persons are found to have been creating a lot of problems like traffic problems, injuring the general population, creating unhygienic conditions in the residential areas, and their lives too at-risk, etc. Therefore, in each million plus city, at least one *lunatic asylum*¹ should be established for mentally ill houseless people wherein they should be provided regular

¹. Lunatic asylum is a hospital for mentally incompetent or unbalanced person.

hospitalised treatment and all the facilities needed for them like food, clothing, medicine, bathing, doctors, recreation, etc. In addition to it, two persons (one male and one female) should be appointed to look out for such people in the city and bring them to the mental hospital of the city, if they found any, for safeguarding them. In Kanpur city, the lunatic asylum should be established in Zone 2 because it has a lot of space and good transport connectivity to the whole city and it is also very close to the zones congested with the houseless population i.e. Zones 1 & 4.

- (ii) The total sampled houseless population is recorded 2353 in which 2059 are males and 294 are females. The maximum number of houseless population is found in Zone 1 (653 persons), followed by Zone 6 (474 persons), Zone 5 (339 persons), Zone 3 (337 persons), Zone 4 (285 persons) and Zone 2 (265 persons). Though the government has made provision of night shelter homes for only 970 houseless people who are already insufficient to meet the requirements of the total houseless population in the city to live and stay, the current actual functioning night shelter homes have even a lesser capacity to accommodate only 660 houseless people. The zone wise ratios between the total capacity of these accommodations given in the government's provision and the actual availability of night shelter homes for houseless persons are 340: 200 in Zone 1, 10: 00 in Zone 2, 120: 120 in Zone 3, 150: 30 in Zone 4, 150: 110 in Zone 5, and 200: 200 in Zone 6. But, actually, only 344 houseless people are living in the 14 functioning night shelter homes out of total available 23 night shelter homes. It means that out of the total provision made only for 10 percent houseless population, the actual functioning facility for stay is available only for 7 percent houseless persons out of which merely about 3.50 percent houseless people have been living in night shelter homes in the Kanpur city. Therefore, there is a huge need for night shelter homes to be set up in each zone of the city besides the existing ones, particularly at places namely Mool Ganj, Pared, General Ganj, Anwar Ganj, Harbansh Mohal, Civil Lines, Naya Ganj (Danakhori), Collector Ganj and Chauk Sarrafa in Zone 1; Safipur, cantonment area near railway station and Zazmao in Zone 2; Kidwai Nagar, Juhi Kala Hamirpur Road and Bakar Ganj in Zone 3; Chunni Ganj, Colonel Ganj, Gwal Toli and Nehru Nagar in Zone 4; Fazal Ganj, Bhannana Purwa, Govind Nagar and Nirala Nagar in Zone 5; and Kalyanpur, Gita Nagar, Naveen Nagar Kakadev, Vinayakpur, and Sarvodya Nagar in Zone 6. These night shelter

homes should be established either at the main *chaurahas*² or the main roads, and it is needed to be supplemented/ implemented urgently by re-innovating the old abandoned government buildings like railway quarters, warehouses, storage houses, community health centres, various mills and factories, etc. The new night shelter homes should be furnished with all kinds of basic infrastructure facilities so that the houseless people can sense the feeling of being at home in the shelters, like (1) Hard Beds, (2) Cushions, (3) Bed Sheets/*Dari*³ (4) Blankets, (5) Quilts (6) Pillows, (7) Toilets, (8) Bathrooms, (9) Buckets, (10) Mugs, (11) Submersible, (12) Drinking Water, (13) Glasses, (14) Chairs, (15) Tables, (16) Television, (17) Torches, (18) Lanterns, (19) Electric Light, (20) Generator (21) Inverter (22) Fans, (23) Coolers, (24) Stoves, (25) LPG Gas Cylinders, (26) Pots, (27) Mosquitoes Coils, (28) Mirror, (29) Kitchen, (30) Dispensary/Medicine, (31) Sweeper, etc. Because out of 23 existing night shelter homes, only 12 have a few basic infrastructure facilities while 11 night shelter homes have nothing except the physical structure of building. Moreover, special provision should be made for houseless families in the form of separate house and there should also be a separate 'women night shelter homes' for individual houseless females. These night shelter homes should be popularised among houseless people because most of the houseless people do not even know about these facilities available for them. Some houseless persons complained that the duties-in-charge of these homes use to misbehave, torture, abuse, and illegally imprison these people in fake cases with the help of police, and even extract their blood in night by giving anesthesia, such culprits should, hence, be punished and provision of full protection and safeguard of houseless people in the night shelter homes should be maintained.

- (iii) The root of the problem of houselessness in the city lies in the rural areas of the country because more than seventy percent houseless people have come with a rural background in the various villages. Further, 84.48 percent houseless people have been recorded as workers, mainly due to the male selective migration from rural countryside to the city for employment opportunities, high wages, regular work, etc. These rural in-migrants try their best to get some kind of work, ready to be engaged even in petty jobs as rickshaw pullers, construction workers, rag pickers, waiters & cooks,

². Fourways crossings.

³. Carpet cushion.

street venders, loaders & un-loaders, maid servants, begging activity, etc. to sustain themselves and their families. On the other hand, among push factors of out-migration for houseless persons from their places of origin, economic factors accounted 92.16 percent, followed by social factors (5.83 percent), biological factors (1.76 percent), and natural calamities (0.25 percent). Likewise, more than nine-tenth houseless in-migrants in the city are also pulled by economic factors, followed by social (2.83 percent) and biological (1.85 percent) pull factors. So, the employment opportunities in rural areas of the country must be developed to curve the heavy influx of rural in-migrants in the city. Thus, it is the need of the hour that an act of 'Work for All' should be passed by the government to provide the employment opportunities for all kinds of persons at their native places according to their ability for the whole year throughout the country, regardless of the ambitious MNREGA programme. Moreover, In order to achieve this end, the subsidiary employment opportunities can also be provided by developing small scale household industrial units, and agro-based, agro-allied and ancillary industries like animal husbandry, poultry farms, fisheries, horticulture, floriculture, dairy, piggery, apiculture, silviculture, sericulture, etc. during agricultural slack seasons. In addition to it, MNUEGA (Mahatma Gandhi National Urban Employment Guarantee Act) on the guidelines of MNERGA (Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act) should also be launched to provide whole year work for the urban poor marginalised people so that they can also earn the means for two square meals in a day.

- (iv) There should be provision of 'Micro Loans Scheme' at zero rates of interest for the poor marginalised people so that they can initiate some employment opportunities in the form of household industries according to their skill & knowledge. Moreover, the various kinds of household industrial unites (related with factories of cotton, wool, fiver, glass, hardware, etc) should be established in both the rural and urban areas of the country by the governments at free of cost and care-taking responsibility of these units should be given to these poor marginalised people in common and then after some monthly return amount of money may be taken from them.
- (v) The study identified that more than ninety percent houseless workers are found as daily casual workers, because, these people neither have same type of work on a

regular basis, nor have continuity of working days in any type of work due to limited employment opportunities for them. Further, a large proportion of houseless workers are also un-skilled workers (87.39 percent), hence houseless persons have to go daily to the day labour markets and wait there, like beggars, for their customers in order to get hired for some casual work. Only 6.68 percent are permanent workers. However, it does not mean that they are registered workers; they are only performing the same type of work regularly like cobblers, weavers, hair dressers, artisans and blacksmiths. Thus, training and skills programmes must be initiated for them in the city for free to ensure the regularity of jobs and high wages for these poor people. For example, there should be a Job Training Programme (JTP) for workers who need training to advance in their current job, to find another job or to change their career. The job training programme should include the subjects like enhancement of self-image, communication skills, effective decision making, human relations, time management, team building, negotiation skills, motivation, health, hygiene, stress management and many more. In addition to it, there should be some Workers' Compensation (WC) scheme to give benefits to workers who get injured during work or get some work-related illness, who have lost their jobs through no fault of their own, etc. Injured workers can get medical benefits, compensation for lost wages, job training, and other workers' compensation benefits.

- (vi) The majority of houseless population in the city (96.09 percent) feels the need for security from different kinds of humiliations and disturbances, in which nearly one-fourth houseless persons needed protection each from public harassment and police chasing, followed by those threatened by municipal torment (14.79 percent), traffic (11.79 percent), aggression (8.88 percent), noise (7.46 percent), disputes (3.58 percent), and A to Z society (1.03 percent). About three-fourth (74.77 percent) proportion of houseless people has reported very ill-treatment by the general population, wherein the policemen have been responsible for most of the ill treatment met by these people (45.35 percent), followed by officers (25.63 percent), various gangs (15.25 percent) and local people (13.77 percent). Nearly two-third houseless population has had bad experience at different occasions, with more than half (54.97 percent) of the houseless population being badly affected by various VIP visits, followed by the national festivals (29.90 percent) and various functions/ceremonies

(15.12 percent). Houseless population used to face a lot of problems daily in their life like 44.44 percent houseless people are confronted with the lack of shelters, lack of toilet facilities, unemployment and lack of water, followed by low wages (9.6 percent), poor hygiene (9.48 percent), no fire grounds in winter (6.14 percent), police harassment (5.99 percent), lack of clothes (5.50 percent), poverty (5.33 percent), municipal torment (3.90 percent), hunger (3.00 percent), torture by local people (2.91 percent), payment delays (1.62 percent), violence (1.32 percent), no fan in shelter homes (0.49 percent), lack of lighting facilities (0.08 percent), no pension (0.07 percent), drunkards (0.04 percent), lack of education (0.03 percent), no space for house, high cost of land and no money/income (0.02 percent each), and high price level (0.01 percent). Therefore, there should be 'Labour Courts' in each city where these houseless workers can register their cases, complaints, inconveniences, etc. and these courts should be meant only for the labourers particularly of marginalised classes, just like Consumer Courts and 'National Commission for Women'.

- (vii) The proportion of illiterate houseless respondents is much greater (61.42 percent) than literate houseless respondents (38.58 percent). Among these literate houseless respondents, nearly seventy percent (69.60 percent) has its education only upto primary level, with a marginal proportion being educated upto secondary (21.22 percent), senior secondary (6.69 percent), graduation (2.29 percent) and diploma (0.19 percent) level. The ratio between literates and illiterates among houseless households' family members is 27.55 and 72.45 percent in which 78.24 percent people have primary level education. It means that the educational level among the houseless population is very much lower; hence educational awareness among these people should be promoted in the city. Special drives have also to be undertaken to strengthen the primary and middle level education in both the rural as well as urban areas, and to achieve the objective of 'Education for All', the 'Right to Education Act (RTE)' should be made very rigorous, ambitious, efficient & effective means to encompass each and every child particularly of marginalised sections of the society, because education plays a pervasive role in bringing about transformation in the quality of human life. Governments should also provide pick-and-drop facility for school children from their homes and schools, along with the provisions of no tuition fee, free books, mid-day meal, scholarships, etc. The parents of school going children

should also be periodically rewarded, counselled and educated to make them send their children regularly to schools. Apart from universalisation of elementary education (UEE), there is need of the hour for the universalisation the secondary education (USE) among masses of the country. A large number of houseless families has been found in Zone 6 (71 sampled houseless families), Zone 3 (45 sampled houseless families), Zone 5 (37 sampled houseless families), Zone 2 (33 sampled houseless families), Zone 1 (24 sampled houseless families), and Zone 4 (18 sampled houseless families). Thus, to target the children of houseless families and slum dwellers also, the government schools should be opened at places like Civil Lines in Zone 1; Cantonment area near railway station in Zone 2; Munsii Purwa, Kidwai Nagar and Transport Nagar in Zone 3; Tilak Nagar and Permat in Zone 4; Govind Nagar, Barra by-Pass and Fazal Ganj in Zone 5; and Vinayakpur, Kalyanpur, Khyora, Naveen Nagar Kakadev and Gita Nagar in Zone 6. Simultaneously, emphasis should be given on diffusion of higher and vocational education in the countryside so that the number of youths who have been migrating from rural to urban areas for work may also be checked substantially by preparing them for self-employment. Because, 2.29 percent houseless people have the education upto graduation and it is totally failure of a democratic government that graduate people are rendering in the streets as houseless people.

- (viii) Out of total houseless population in the city, 87.40 percent has reported interruptions in sleeping/living, among which more than half (52.03 percent) houseless persons have been interrupted by inclement weather, fear of theft, violence & death, air pollution and mosquitoes, while remaining population is interrupted by police chasing (7.59 percent), noise pollution (6.64 percent), non-availability of street lights (6.11 percent), physical abuse (5.65 percent), traffic (5.58 percent), family tensions (4.93 percent), drunkards (4.16 percent), local people (2.85 percent), craving for addiction or hunger (1.87 percent), sexual abuse (1.30 percent), health problems (1.18 percent), opening & closing of shops (0.04 percent), and negative behaviour of shoppers/shopkeepers (0.06 percent). Majority of houseless persons (97.05 percent) have felt season's inclementness, with only 2.95 percent houseless population having a comfortable life in all the seasons. Nearly one-fifth (19.56 percent) of the houseless population was socially disaffiliated particularly from siblings/wives, parents,

relatives, close non-local friends, close local friends and a group of people too. In addition to it, a considerable proportion (more than one-fifth) of houselessness is the outcome of very undistinguished causes as having no family, no sibling, poor health, no kins, social persecution stigmatisation, mental illness, widowed/divorced, abandoned by family, runaway, parents' houselessness, domestic violence, family breakdown, orphaned, no friends, physical disability, depression, substance abuse, substandard housing, natural calamities, extortion of house, house damage & displacement, no house, parents' illness/death, house sold or destroyed by fire, no room for single person in city, being new comer in search of work, step parents, old age, foreclosure, accidents, hospital referrals, parents remarriage, parents being runaway, etc. In this regard, old-age and orphanage community homes should be established in each city for people having poor health or being older, orphans, widowed, divorced, separated, throwaways & runaways, houseless, physically disabled, etc. These community homes should embody all types of modern household facilities & amenities, recreational facilities, some educational & medical services, etc. There should also be a provision of single separate room for houseless families so that their privacy can be secured and maintained. Notwithstanding, there should be at least one community home in each zone of the Kanpur city which should be established at places namely Naya Ganj or Mool Ganj in Zone 1, Rama Devi Crossing in Zone 2, Baker Ganj Chauraha in Zone 3, Chunni Ganj in Zone 4, Kalyanpur in Zone 5 and Govind Nagar or Vijay Nagar in Zone 6, because these places are lying in the areas of high concentration of houseless population, commercial & industrial activities and have very good transport connectivity.

- (ix) Out of the total selected houseless population, 87.34 percent has been reported as the victim of substance addiction. More than half (i.e. 60.38 percent) houseless respondents prostrated to various diseases. Among the proportion of houseless population which is physically disabled (11.67 percent), 6.82 percent people were handicapped by legs, followed by those who are paraplegic (1.48 percent), deaf and handicapped by hands (1.13 percent each), blind (0.91 percent), and have polio (0.21 percent). Less than one-fifth (17.25 percent) houseless population was mentally ill among which depression and trauma are the most common mental problems which accounted 6.77 and 5.01 percent respectively. Thus, counseling centres should be

opened by the government for the marginalised people who become houseless due to family tensions, disputes & communalism, substance addiction, fear of head of the village, love matters, depression, mental & physical disabilities, being throwaways and orphans, etc. The counsellor should be obliged to provide free mandatory counseling services to the physically and mentally disabled like blind people, mentally disabled people, mobility impaired people, multi-disabled people, etc. as well as to advise their relatives such as spouses, parents or others who are included in the houseless person's close social network for their welfare. Local authorities must also offer outreach service to suit individual needs such as education, training & job options, housing conditions, local authority help or support options, citizen rights & duties, etc. so as to enable them to come in the main stream of the society through psychological, physical, and domestic counseling. The most suitable place for setting up Counseling Centre for the houseless people in the city is either Civil Lines in Zone 1 or Moti Jheel in Zone 4, because most of the administrative offices of the city are located within these two zones in nearby surrounding areas of these two places so that good administrative commitment and well functioning of the centre can be ensured.

- (x) The present study ascertains that 15.68 percent houseless people do not have even a single durable item, while 84.32 percent persons possess only few basic durable goods in which about two-third houseless people have beddings and cooking pots of very mean nature, with only 8.23 percent persons having mobile phones while remaining have some other durable goods in very negligible proportion. More than half houseless population wears old, torn, black and sticky clothes. No single houseless household possesses its own sources of drinking water, bathing and defecation facilities and they totally depend on public & private sources provided by others. Only fifty percent houseless population avails the few basic government services wherein 51.06 percent persons have voter ID cards, followed by people having ration cards (44.50 percent), BPL cards (2.13 percent), UID cards (1.06 percent) and others (1.24 percent). Nearly half (46.21 percent) houseless persons are deprived of any help in the times of emergency even from their family members, relatives, employers, passer-by, social help groups, policemen, propitiators, etc. While 83.39 percent houseless people have lived in house at least once upon a time in their life, 16.61 percent have never experienced a life within the house. Moreover,

14.44 percent people have been houseless since birth, while 11.47 percent have been living the life of houseless from 30 to above 50 years and 74.09 percent from 5 to 30 years. As an inferior environment like lack of water supply suitable for drinking, adequate resources for disposal of excreta & other wastes, education, health services, etc. affect and determine the quality of life, a living environment with all basic modern household infrastructure and amenities of water, sanitation and domestic energy, etc. offering a sense of privacy, safety and dignity should be the birth right of every individual in society. Therefore, there should be bill for the 'Right to Basic Needs of Life' that includes the Food for All, Clothe for All, Shelter for All, Health for All, Education for All, Recreation for All and Social Security for All. There should be the provision of a 'Green Life Card' with the help of which the poor people of marginalised sections of the society can enjoy educational, medical, transport, employment, shelter, and various other infrastructural facilities free of cost from the government regulated sectors and upto some extent in private owned sectors too. This card should also facilitate the access to recreational facilities by houseless population as they are largely deprived of recreation in their life with only 26.32 percent people having some sort of recreational activities like watching television (15.59 percent), going to cinema (9.73 percent), and others (1.00 percent) like listening radio (0.60 percent), picnics (0.27 percent) and playing cards (0.13 percent).

- (xi) The 15.11 percent of the houseless people were having food only once a day while more than one-tenth (10.70 percent) of the houseless population was found unable to secure even a single meal per day, thus being hungry for the whole time with their empty stomachs continuously craving for the food. Such people basically include old persons, beggars, mentally and physically disabled people, new comers to the city, unemployed people, widowed, divorced/separated, etc. The houseless people comprise the significant number of the estimated 8 to 200 million of people who sleep hungry every night⁴. Thus, the right to food should take care of the special provision of houseless people, beggars, slum dwellers and various other destitute people. Right to food being a part of right to development was adopted by the United Nations in 1986. The Right to Development is an inalienable human right by virtue of

⁴. See <http://www.sccommissioners.org/reports>.

which every human person can participate in and contribute to and enjoy economic, social, cultural and political development in which all human rights and fundamental freedoms can be fully realised” (Article 1, Paragraph 1). The right to food is a human right that legalises the right for people to have regular access to adequate quantity of quality food at affordable prices to people so that they can feed themselves to live a life with dignity according to the cultural traditions of the people to which they belong, in other words, it keeps the people free from hunger, food insecurity, malnutrition & under nutrition, various nutritional deficiency disorders, etc. Therefore, the right to food as fundamental right (Article 21 and directive principle of State policy, Article 47) should be very rigorously acted out in the whole country like National Food Security Bill, 2013; and moreover supported by individuals, civil societies and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) so that each and every individual can feel food security and will not crave from hunger.

- (xii) Nearly one-tenth (9.17 percent) houseless population out-migrated from their places of origin to Kanpur city due to their landlessness while 4.56 percent persons have come in the city due to small size of land-holdings. Therefore, to check the rural to urban migration of the rural poors in the country, land acquisition bill and the land ceiling reforms should be implemented, in fact the land acquisition bill has been passed by the parliament but it does not fulfill its requirements of the present time because land acquisition processes should be environmentally sustainable and the socio-economic conditions of the local people should be kept into consideration, thus a very sound approach of land acquisition processes and agricultural land ceiling reforms has been proposed in the articles namely, (i) Shamshad and Khan, J.H., 2012. A new approach for land acquisition in India. *The Research Journal of Social Science*, 2 (10), pp. 49-58, and (ii) Khan, J.H. and Shamshad, 2012. A new approach for agricultural land ceiling reforms in India. *H. R. Journal of Management: An International Journal in Management*, 4 (2), pp. 9-15 respectively.
- (xiii) The political will and administrative skill through good governance in public monitoring expenditure can do everything. Therefore, the government should revisit its poverty alleviating programmes particularly related to employment, housing, and modern household infrastructure facilities and amenities in both rural and urban areas of the country like, Intensive Agriculture Development Programme (IADP, 1960-

61), Intensive Agriculture Area Programme (IAAP, 1964-65), Accelerated Rural Water Supply Programmes (ARWSP), Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP, 1973), Command Area Development Programme (CADP, 1975), Twenty Point Programme (TPP, 1975), Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS, 1975), Food for Work Programme (FWP, 1977-78), Antodya Yojana (1977-78), Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP, 1978), Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP, 1983), National Drinking Water Mission (NDWM, 1986), Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY, 1989), Nehru Rozgar Yojana (NRY, 1989), Scheme for Urban Wage Employment (SUWE, 1990), Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS, 1993), Prime Minister Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programme (PMIEUPEP, 1995), National Family Benefit Schemes (NFBS, 1995), Mid Day Meal Scheme (MDMS, 1995), National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP, 1995), Swarna Jayanti Shahri Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY, 1997), Anna Poorna Yojana (APY, 1999), Swarn Jayanti Gram Swarojgar Yojana (SJGSY, 1999), Indira Awas Yojana (IAY, 1999-2000), Pradhan Mantri Gramodya Yojana (PMGY, 2000), Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY, 2000), Sampoorana Grammen Rojgar Yojana (SGRY, 2001), Universal Health Insurance Scheme (UHS, 2003), Village Grain Bank Scheme (VGBS, 2004), National Food for Work Programme (NFWP, 2004), Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY, 2005), National Horticulture Mission (NHM, 2005-06), National Rural Health Mission (NRHM, 2005), Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM, 2005), Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MNREGS, 2006), National Food Security Mission (NFSM, 2007), National Urban Housing & Habitat Policy (NUHHP, 2007), Rashtriya Krishi Vikas Yojana (RKVY, 2007), Rashtriya Swastha Bima Yojana (RSBY, 2008), Rajiv Awas Yojana (RAY, 2009), Indira Gandhi Matritva Sahyog Yojana (IGMSY, 2010), Janani Shishu Suraksha Karyakram (JSSK, 2011), Sabla or Rajiv Gandhi Scheme for Empowerment of Adolescent Girls (RGSEAG, 2011), Indira Gandhi National Old Age Pension Scheme (IGNOAPS, 2011), National Food Security Act (NFSA, 2013), etc. There should be an efficient implementation and diffusion of all these social and welfare schemes of development for poverty alleviation, employment generation, development of educational and health infrastructure, basic amenities and facilities, etc. These measures will surely exert a pervasive influence on the life of marginalised

sections of the society by bridging the gap between 'haves and have nots' in the rural and urban areas and will also help in bringing the spatial equilibrium and social justice to the masses.

- (xiv) The international organisations like The United Nations (UN), The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), The World Bank, The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), The International Labour Organization (ILO), The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), The World Food Programme (WFP), The World Health Organization (WHO), etc. should come forward for the welfare of humanity particularly in the developing countries of the world by ignoring the geographical and cultural boundaries. In addition to it, the actual prevailing socio-economic conditions of the destitute people should be popularised by electronic and print media, serial programmes, movies and documentaries, so that, like Shree 420, Traffic Signal, Slum Dog Millionaire, Jolly LL.B, etc. so that some welfare initiatives for the betterment of their life may come from the sides of general population, civil societies and non-governmental organisations (NGOs).
- (xv) Moreover, it may be suggested that prior to the formulation of houseless policies at local, regional and national levels, the micro-level analysis of the socio-economic and demographic attributes of houselessness should be made at places of origin and destination of the houseless population. Besides, a thorough knowledge of the health status, poverty, food security, fertility and mortality behaviours, perceived and received expectations, socio-economic conditions of families of those houseless people whose families are living at their places of origin, rural-urban differentials of houseless population, a comparative analysis of houseless people and inhabitants residing in slums and squatters settlements, etc. is equally essential for framing rational policies of houseless population.

9.4. Preventions and Interventions

For prevention to be successful there needs to be a consideration of shift from the current reactive responses to more proactive ones. Keeping this in mind, it is imperative to look at

what can be done immediately before houselessness occurs in order to prevent it. Individual triggers rarely result in houselessness because it is the accumulation of triggers over time and their occurrence in swift succession that makes them so potent. The length of time between the starting of triggers and the occurrence of houselessness suggests that there ought to be ample time for prevention. Moreover, there also needs to be a realistic intervention agenda. Too often, funding cannot be secured for intervention strategies because results take longer time and it is more difficult to prove the outcomes. Before any government intervention policies are set, there needs to be further research to review the way the policies are set and their outcomes generated.

The researchers often have make-shift solutions to the problems that cause as much damage as they alleviate. Nonetheless, following are a few general preventions and interventions that may be adopted to curb the volume of houselessness:

- (i) Promote broad and non-discriminatory access to open, efficient, effective and appropriate housing financing for all people by mobilising innovative financial and other resources, both public and private, for community development.
- (ii) Upgrade existing housing stock through rehabilitation, renovation, maintenance and the adequate supply of basic services, facilities and amenities in both rural and urban areas of the country. Increase the supply of affordable housing by encouraging and promoting affordable home ownership and also increase the supply of affordable rental, communal, cooperative and other types of housing through partnerships among public, private and community initiatives.
- (iii) Endorse assistance for activities in the field of shelter and human settlements development in favour of people living in poverty, particularly houseless and other vulnerable groups such as refugees, internally displaced persons, people with disabilities, street children, migrants and the slum dwellers, through specific targeted grants.
- (iv) Ensure legal protection from discrimination in access to shelter and basic services, facilities and amenities without distinction of any kind such as on the basis of race, caste & category, colour, sex & age, language, religion, political or other opinion, national, regional or social origin, disability, birth or other status, etc.
- (v) Protect legal rights and obligations of both tenants and owners and redress for forced evictions that are contrary to the law, taking human rights into consideration; when

evictions are unavoidable, ensure as appropriate that alternative suitable solutions are provided.

- (vi) Provide shelter and basic services and facilities of education and health for the houseless, displaced persons, indigenous people, women, children and refugees who are survivors of family violence, persons with disabilities, older persons, victims of natural and man-made disasters and people belonging to vulnerable and disadvantaged groups so that they will be protective of human health.
- (vii) Encourage locally available, appropriate, affordable, safe, efficient and environment friendly sound construction methods, technologies and raw materials in all countries, particularly in developing countries, at the local, national, regional and sub-regional levels which emphasise the optimal use of local human resources too.
- (viii) Periodically evaluate and revise the shelter policies appropriately, taking into consideration the needs of people without shelter and the impact of such policies on the environment, economic development and social welfare.

Appendices

Appendix 3.1

Zone Wise List of Wards in Kanpur City, 2012

Zone 1		Zone 2		Zone 3	
No	Name	No	Name	No	Name
2	Laxmi Purwa	10	Chakeri Ward	12	Transport Nagar
21	Rai Purwa	19	Sanigawan Ward	23	Kidwai Nagar Saramand
40	Anwar Ganj	28	Krishna Nagar	24	Usmanpur
50	Sisamau South	29	Safipur	25	Juhi Hamirpur Road
59	Civil Line	30	Naubasta East	31	Baker Ganj
84	Dalel Purwa	37	Harjindra Nagar	36	Binagawan
85	Koper Ganj	39	Hanspuram	54	Babu Purwa Coloney
92	Chatai Mohal	44	Om Purwa	55	Kidwai Nagar South
97	Harbansh Mohal	48	Pashipant Nagar	58	Basant Bihar
99	Chaman Ganj	53	Sujanpur KDA Coloney	75	Munsi Purwa
100	Patkapur	66	Zazmau South	79	Juhi Kala
101	Maheshwari Mohal	67	Yashoda Nagar East	80	Barra East
102	General Ganj	70	Tiwaripur	81	Jaruli
103	Pared	71	Gandhi Gram	83	Naubasti West
104	Nazir Bagh	77	Shyam Nagar Sujat Ganj	88	Karrhi
105	Danakhori	86	Zazmau North	90	Kidwai Nagar North
106	Chauk Sarrafa	91	Yashoda Nagar West	96	Babu Purwa
109	Collector Ganj	95	Chandori	108	Begam Purwa
Zone 4		Zone 5		Zone 6	
1	Old Kanpur	3	Govind Nagar Harijan Basti	8	Maswanpur
4	Gwal Toli	7	Nirala Nagar	9	Vishnupuri
5	Chunni Ganj	17	Saraimita	14	Amedkar Nagar
6	Mechrowat Ganj	33	Panki	16	Khyora
11	Jawahar Nagar	35	Juhi	18	Kalyanpur
13	Khalasi Line	38	Fazal Ganj	20	Naramau
15	Permat	47	Bhannana Purwa	26	Vijay Nagar
22	Binajhawar	52	Darauli	27	Sarojni Nagar
41	Sisamau North	56	Ratan Lal Nagar	32	Nankari
43	Ashok Nagar	60	Barra	34	Sarvodya Nagar
49	Tilak Nagar	62	Barra Gaon	42	Awas Vikas Kalyanpur
51	Nehru Nagar	64	Swaraj Nagar Panki	45	Nawab Ganj
65	Gandhi Nagar	69	Gujaini Coloney	46	Vinayakpur
76	Suther Ganj	72	Naseemabad	57	Naveen Nagar Kakadev
78	Prem Nagar	73	Barra West	61	Lajpat Nagar
94	Becon Ganj	74	Ravidas Purvi	63	Gita Nagar
107	Talaq Mohal	89	Kaushal Puri	68	Rawatpur
110	Colonel Ganj	93	Govind Nagar South	82	Hariharnath Sastri Nagar
-	-	98	Govind Nagar North	87	Kakadev

Source: Kanpur Nagar Nigam.

Appendix 3.2

Ward Wise Sampled Houseless Population in Zone 1, Kanpur City, 2012

Sl. No.	Name of the wards	No. of houseless households			No. of houseless households with family			No. of houseless family members		
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1	Laxmi Purwa	13	13	-	2	2	-	6	6	-
2	Rai Purwa	9	8	1	1	1	-	7	7	-
3	Anwar Ganj	61	61	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	Sisamau South	19	19	-	1	1	-	6	6	-
5	Civil Line	57	47	10	9	3	6	30	12	18
6	Dalel Purwa	6	5	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	Koper Ganj	20	20	-	1	1	-	6	6	-
8	Chatai Mohal	34	32	2	1	-	1	10	-	10
9	Harbansh Mohal	48	47	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	Chaman Ganj	14	14	-	1	1	-	3	3	-
11	Patkapur	15	14	1	1	-	1	4	-	4
12	Maheshwari Mohal	7	6	1	1	-	1	1	-	1
13	General Ganj	58	58	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
14	Pared	29	29	-	1	1	-	6	6	-
15	Nazir Bagh	5	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
16	Danakhori	91	89	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
17	Chauk Sarrafa	45	39	6	5	4	1	17	10	7
18	Collector Ganj	26	25	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total		557	531	26	24	14	10	96	56	40

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Appendix 3.3

Ward Wise Sampled Houseless Population in Zone 2, Kanpur City, 2012

Ward no.	Name of the wards	No. of houseless households			No. of houseless households with family			No. of houseless family members		
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
10	Chakeri Ward	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
19	Sanigawan Ward	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
28	Krishna Nagar	5	4	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
29	Safipur	14	13	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
30	Naubasta East	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
37	Harjindra Nagar	8	8	-	2	2	-	20	20	-
39	Hanspuram	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
44	Om Purwa	6	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
48	Pashipant Nagar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
53	Sujanpur KDA Coloney	8	7	1	3	2	1	10	6	4
66	Zazmau South	7	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
67	Yashoda Nagar East	4	4	-	1	1	-	4	4	-
70	Tiwaripur	4	3	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
71	Gandhi Gram	7	5	2	4	4	-	26	26	-
77	Shyam Nagar Sujat Ganj	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
86	Zazmau North	4	4	-	1	1	-	2	2	-
91	Yashoda Nagar West	8	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
95	Chandori	3	2	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
No	Cantonment Area	35	32	3	22	20	2	90	80	10
Total		113	103	10	33	30	3	152	138	14

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Appendix 3.4

Ward Wise Sampled Houseless Population in Zone 3, Kanpur City, 2012

Ward no.	Name of the wards	No. of houseless households			No. of houseless households with family			No. of houseless family members		
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
12	Transport Nagar	5	5	-	3	3	-	10	10	-
23	Kidwai Nagar Saramand	14	14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
24	Usmanpur	17	15	2	4	2	2	12	5	7
25	Juhi Hamirpur Road	22	9	13	4	3	1	10	8	2
31	Baker Ganj	12	12	-	3	3	-	19	19	-
36	Binagawan	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
54	Babu Purwa Coloney	8	7	1	4	3	1	15	10	5
55	Kidwai Nagar South	9	9	-	2	2	-	7	7	-
58	Basant Bihar	4	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
75	Munsi Purwa	9	7	2	5	3	2	17	8	9
79	Juhi Kala	14	14	-	7	7	-	40	40	-
80	Barra East	10	10	-	5	5	-	16	16	-
81	Jaruli	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
83	Naubasti West	2	-	2	2	-	2	10	-	10
88	Karrhi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
90	Kidwai Nagar North	6	5	1	4	3	1	19	13	6
96	Babu Purwa	10	10	-	1	1	-	1	1	-
108	Begam Purwa	6	5	1	1	1	-	13	13	-
Total		148	126	22	45	36	9	189	150	39

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Appendix 3.5

Ward Wise Sampled Houseless Population in Zone 4, Kanpur City, 2012

Ward no.	Name of the wards	No. of houseless households			No. of houseless households with family			No. of houseless family members		
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1	Old Kanpur	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	Gwal Toli	23	22	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	Chunni Ganj	20	19	1	1	1	-	3	3	-
6	Mechrowat Ganj	7	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	Jawahar Nagar	7	6	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
13	Khalasi Line	15	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15	Permat	14	14	-	3	3	-	11	11	-
22	Binajhwar	9	8	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
41	Sisamau North	5	4	1	2	2	-	9	9	-
43	Ashok Nagar	14	14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
49	Tilak Nagar	15	12	3	9	6	3	55	41	14
51	Nehru Nagar	15	12	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
65	Gandhi Nagar	14	14	-	1	1	-	6	6	-
76	Suther Ganj	6	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
78	Prem Nagar	8	7	1	1	-	1	1	-	1
94	Becon Ganj	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
107	Talaq Mohal	7	7	-	1	1	-	5	5	-
110	Colonel Ganj	12	12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total		195	183	12	18	14	4	90	75	15

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Appendix 3.6

Ward Wise Sampled Houseless Population in Zone 5, Kanpur City, 2012

Name of the wards	No. of houseless households			No. of houseless households with family			No. of houseless family members		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Govind Nagar Harijan Basti	7	5	2	3	1	2	16	5	11
Nirala Nagar	16	16	-	1	1	-	1	1	-
Saraimita	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Panki	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Juhi	5	4	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Fazal Ganj	23	20	3	6	5	1	25	22	3
Bhannana Purwa	17	17	-	1	1	-	6	6	-
Darauli	4	3	1	1	1	-	7	7	-
Ratan Lal Nagar	11	10	1	7	6	1	32	30	2
Barra	7	6	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Barra Gaon	7	6	1	7	6	1	35	29	6
Swaraj Nagar Panki	4	4	-	3	3	-	14	14	-
Gujaini Coloney	5	3	2	2	1	1	6	5	1
Naseemabad	17	16	1	2	1	1	9	6	3
Barra West	7	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ravidas Purvi	7	5	2	4	2	2	15	7	8
Kaushal Puri	12	12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Govind Nagar South	4	3	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Govind Nagar North	20	20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	173	157	16	37	28	9	166	132	34

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Appendix 3.7

Ward Wise Sampled Houseless Population in Zone 6, Kanpur City, 2012

Ward no.	Name of the wards	No. of houseless households			No. of houseless households with family			No. of houseless family members		
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
8	Maswanpur	2	2	-	2	2	-	13	13	-
9	Vishnupuri	6	5	1	2	1	1	8	4	4
14	Amedkar Nagar	9	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
16	Khyora	7	5	2	7	5	2	36	25	11
18	Kalyanpur	12	11	1	3	2	1	11	5	6
20	Naramau	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
26	Vijay Nagar	16	13	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
27	Sarojni Nagar	8	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
32	Nankari	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
34	Sarvodya Nagar	13	10	3	5	3	2	15	11	4
42	Awas Vikas Kalyanpur	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
45	Nawab Ganj	20	20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
46	Vinayakpur	21	16	5	14	12	2	67	60	7
57	Naveen Nagar Kakadev	26	23	3	14	11	3	37	33	4
61	Lajpat Nagar	13	11	2	6	5	1	27	24	3
63	Gita Nagar	20	19	1	12	11	1	42	39	3
68	Rawatpur	5	4	1	4	3	1	16	14	2
82	Hariharnath Sastri Nagar	9	9	-	1	1	-	1	1	-
87	Kakadev	11	11	-	1	1	-	3	3	-
Total		198	176	22	71	57	14	276	232	44

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Appendix 3.8

Table 3.6: Zone Wise Sampled Houseless Population in Kanpur City, 2012

Zones	No. of houseless households			No. of houseless households' family members			No. of houseless population		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Zone 1	557	531	26	96	56	40	653	587	66
Zone 2	113	103	10	152	138	14	265	241	24
Zone 3	148	126	22	189	150	39	337	276	61
Zone 4	195	183	12	90	75	15	285	258	27
Zone 5	173	157	16	166	132	34	339	289	50
Zone 6	198	176	22	276	232	44	474	408	66
Total	1384	1276	108	969	783	186	2353	2059	294

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher

Appendix 3.9

Ward Wise Accommodation Status of Night Shelter Homes, Kanpur City, 2012

Zones	Ward Name & Location	Types	Functioning status	Available facilities
1	Chatai Mohal, Birhana Road (KPM Hospital)	Old	Yes	TV (1), Fan (1), Hard Bed (1), Blankets (20), Bed Sheets (14), Table (1), Toilet (1), Bathroom (1), Lantern(1), Torch (1), Glasses (6), Bucket (1), Mug (1) and Mirror (1)
	Civil Line, Phool Bagh	New	No	Nothing
	Civil Line, Bal Bhawan	Old	No	Nothing
	Dana Khor, Naya Ganj	New	Yes	TV(1), Fan (1), Bathrooms (2), Toilets (2), Blankets (38), Torch(1), Light, Drinking Water, Bed Sheet (24), Bucket (1) and Mug (1)
	Koper Ganj, Chacha Nehru Layance Club	New	No	Nothing
	Collector Ganj, Sutar Khana	New	Yes	Light, Blankets (15), Dari (3), Stove (1), Lantern (1), Torch (1), Bucket (1) and Mug (1)
	Sisamao South	Old	Yes	TV(1), Fans (4), Blankets (70), Dari (2), Bed Sheets (30), Toilet (3), Bathrooms (1), Bucket (1), Mug (1), Lantern (1), Torch (1), Stove (1), Hard Bed (1), Table (1) and Chair (1)
	Rai Purwa, Deepti Padav	New	No	Nothing
2	Zazmao, Pokhar Purwa	Old	No	Nothing
3	Babu Purwa, Police Station	Old	Yes	TV(1), Fans (2), Hard Bed (1), Chair (3), Mug (3), Bucket (1), Lantern (1), Toilets (2) and Bathrooms (2)
	Usmanpur	New	Yes	Fan (1), Blankets (26), Dari (2), Toilets (2), Bathrooms (2), Bucket (2), Mug (1) and Stove (1)
4	Tilak Nagar, ATM Moti Jheel	New	No	Nothing
	Tilak Nagar, Moti Jheel Bal Bhawan	Old	Yes	Dari (3), Light, Water, Cooler (1) and Torch(1),
	Tilak Nagar, Halet Hospital	New	No	Nothing
	Suther Ganj, Power house Rave Three	New	No	Nothing
5	Naseemabad, Jareeb Chauki	Old	Yes	Toilets (3), Bathroom (1), Fans (2), Blankets (12), Bed Sheets (12), Dari (2), TV (1), Bucket (1), Mug (1), Table (1), Chair (1), Lantern (1), Torch (1) and Submersible
	Govind Nagar North, Q-Block	Old	Yes	TV (1), Fans (8), Dari (3), Bed Sheets (14), Blankets (41), Bed (1), Table (1), Cooler (1), Torch (1), Lantern (1), Bucket (1), Mug (1), Glasses (4), Stove (1), Toilets (2) and Bathrooms (2)
	Juhi, Sri Ratan IGC	New	No	Nothing
6	Vishnupuri, Azad Nagar, Zoo	New	Yes	Light, Torch (1), Lantern (1), Blankets (12), Dari (2) and Mug (2)
	Nawab Ganj, Market Chauraha	Old	Yes	TV (1), Bathrooms (3), Toilets (3), Blankets (13), Bed Sheets (14), Quilts (14), Bucket (3) and Mug (3)
	Vijay Nagar, Gallah Mandi	Old	Yes	Light, Dari (2), Blankets (17), Bucket (1), Mug (1), Fans (2), Table (1) and Chair (5)
	Vijay Nagar, Kalpy Raod	New	Yes	Nothing
	Kakadev	New	Yes	Light, Bathrooms (2), Toilets (2), Fans (6), Torch (1), Blankets (13), Submersible and Lantern (1)

Source: Calculation is based on primary survey by the researcher.

Appendix 3.10

Zone and Ward Wise Distribution of Night Shelter Homes, Kanpur City, 2012

Zones	Ward no.	Name of the ward and location	Types	Capacity to stay
1	92	Chatai Mohal, Birhana Road (KPM Hospital)	Old	20
	59	Civil Line, Phool Bagh	New	30
	59	Civil Line, Bal Bhawan, Bhaeroghat	Old	20
	105	Dana Khori, Naya Ganj, Express Road	New	80
	85	Koper Ganj, Chacha Nehru Layance Club	New	40
	109	Collector Ganj, Sutar Khana	New	30
	50	Sisamao South	Old	70
	21	Rai Purwa, Deepti Padav	New	50
2	86	Zazmao South, Pokhar Purwa	Old	10
3	96	Babu Purwa, Near Police Station	Old	70
	24	Usmanpur, Opposite of Kali Mandir	New	50
4	49	Tilak Nagar, Moti Jheel, Near SBI ATM	New	30
	49	Tilak Nagar, Moti Jheel, Bal Bhawan	Old	30
	49	Tilak Nagar, Near Halet Hospital	New	50
	76	Suther Ganj, Power house Rave Three	New	40
5	72	Naseemabad, Jareeb Chauki	Old	60
	98	Govind Nagar North, Q-Block, Jageshwar Hospital	Old	50
	35	Juhi, Sri Ratan Govt. Inter College	New	40
6	9	Vishnupuri, Azad Nagar, Zoo	New	30
	45	Nawab Ganj, Market Chauraha	Old	50
	26	Vijay Nagar, Gallah Mandi, Near Double Puliya	Old	10
	26	Vijay Nagar, Panki Hanuman Mandir, Kalpy Raod	New	60
	87	Kakadev	New	50

Source: Kanpur Nagar Nigam.

Appendix 3.11

Contents of the Survey

- Zone No.....Ward NameSerial No.....
Location Code No..... Road/Street Slip No.....
Sl. No. of Respondent.....Name of the Respondent.....
1. Place of birth: Rural/Urban.....Town/Village.....
Block.....Tahsil.....District.....
State.....Country.....
2. Age.....Sex.....Marital Status.....
Religion.....Caste.....Category.....
3. Literacy status:
(a) Literate
(b) Illiterate
4. If illiterate, what are the reasons of illiteracy?
(a) High cost of education
(b) Unemployment
(c) Low income
(d) Ignorant parents
(e) Poverty
(f) Orphan
(g) Large family size
(h) Absence of school
(i) Long distance of school
(j) Caste discrimination
(k) Religion discrimination
(l) Gender discrimination
(m) -----
5. Educational Status:

- (a) Primary
 - (b) Secondary
 - (c) Senior secondary
 - (d) Graduation
 - (e) Post graduation
 - (f) Diploma
6. Migratory status:
- (a) Migrants
 - (b) Non-Migrant
7. If migrated, (i) what are reasons of out-migration from their places of origin acting as pushing factors?
- (a) Unemployment
 - (b) Low wages
 - (c) Arduous nature of work
 - (d) Late Payment
 - (e) Absence of regular work
 - (f) Shyness to work
 - (g) Landlessness
 - (h) Small size of holdings
 - (i) Poverty
 - (j) Lack of civic amenities
 - (k) Fear of communal violence
 - (l) Disputes
 - (m) Fear from head of the village
 - (n) Marriage
 - (o) -----
- (ii) What are the reasons of in-migration operating in the city as pulling Factor?
- (a) Jobs
 - (b) Decent nature of work
 - (c) High wages

- (d) Quick payment
- (e) Regular work
- (f) Civic facilities
- (g) Cheap city
- (h) Education
- (i) Medical services
- (j) Entertainments
- (k) Pomp and glare of city/
- (l) Marriage
- (m) -----

8. Working status:

- (a) Worker
- (b) Non-worker

9. Skill status of worker

- (a) Skills
- (b) Unskilled

10. Types of worker:

- (a) Permanent worker
- (b) Seasonal worker
- (c) Daily worker

11. If unemployed, what are the reasons of unemployment?

- (a) Physical disability
- (b) Mental illness
- (c) Poor health
- (d) Don't want to work
- (e) Lack of skills or education
- (f) Lack of jobs
- (g) Drug and alcohol addiction
- (h) Lack of ID
- (i) Doubt on character

(j) Lack of information

(k) Being women

(l) Blindness

(m) No family

(n) Oldness

(o)-----

12. What are the occupation/profession activities of the worker?

(a) Serving as waiter

(b) Cooking

(c) Shop assistant

(d) Teashop keeper

(e) Domestic worker

(f) Handicrafts makers

(g) Street vendor or hawker

(h) Cycle rickshaw puller

(i) Load rickshaw puller

(j) Loading and un-loading

(k) Rag Picking

(l) Garage worker

(m) Construction worker

(n) Cycle repair mechanic

(o) Cobbling

(p) Tailor

(q) Laundry

(r) Begging

(s) Street performer or magician

(t) Commercial sex worker

(u) White washing and painting

(v) Professional blood donor

(w) Owner of Khokha (small shop)

- (x) Hair dressing
- (y) Black smith
- (z) Handicraft making
- (aa) Weavers
- (bb) Carpenters
- (cc) -----

13. What are the subsidiary occupational activities?

- (a) Casual working
- (b) Cycle rickshaw pulling
- (c) Begging
- (d) Loading and un-loading
- (e) Street vending
- (f) Cooking
- (g) Horse cart driving
- (h)-----

14. No. of working days in a month:

- (a) Full month
- (b) 29-25 days
- (c) 24-20 days
- (d) 19-15 days
- (e) 14-10 days
- (f) Below 5 days
- (g) No work

15. Working hours per day:

- (a) 4-6 hours
- (b) 6-8 hours
- (c) 8-10 hours
- (d) 10-12 hours
- (e) 12-14 hours
- (f) Above 14 hours

(g) No hours

16. Duration of jobless in months per years:

(a) Full month job

(b) 1-2 months

(c) 3-4 months

(d) 5-6 months

(e) 7-8 months

(f) 9-10 months

(g) 11-12 months

(h) Joblessness

17. Daily income in rupees:

(a) No income

(b) Less than 50 rupees

(c) 50-100 rupees

(d) 100-150 rupees

(e) 150-200 rupees

(f) 200-250 rupees

(g) 250-300 rupees

(h) Above 300 rupees

18. Daily saving in rupees:

(a) No saving

(b) Less than 10 rupees

(c) 10-20 rupees

(d) 20-40 rupees

(e) 40-80 rupees

(f) 80-100 rupees

(g) 100-150 rupees

(h) 150-200 rupees

(i) Above 200 rupees

19. Daily expenditure in rupees:

- (a) No expenditure
- (b) Less than 50 rupees
- (c) 50-100 rupees
- (d) 100-150 rupees
- (e) 150-200 rupees
- (f) Above 200 rupees

20. Do you send money to home?

- (a) Regularly
- (b) Irregularly
- (c) Never

21. Amount of Remittances to home per month:

- (a) No remittances
- (b) Below 500 rupees
- (c) 500-1000 rupees
- (d) 1000-1500 rupees
- (e) 1500-2000 rupees
- (f) 2000-2500 rupees
- (g) 2500-3000 rupees
- (h) 3000-3500 rupees
- (i) Above 3500 rupees

22. Other sources of income & Services:

- (a) Food
- (b) Clothing
- (c) Child care
- (d) Job training
- (e) Transportation assistance
- (f) Permanent housing
- (g) Family violence counseling
- (h) Sexual counseling
- (i) Financial assistance

- (j) Legal Assistance
- (k) Food stamps
- (l) Medicaid or Medicare treatment
- (m) Immunization
- (n) Substance abuse care
- (o) Child support
- (p) Employer wages
- (q) Pension
- (r) Advice
- (s) Asking for money on streets
- (t) Unemployment benefits
- (u) Family and friends' help
- (v) Sadka/Zakaat
- (w)

23. Monthly expenditure:

- (a) Fooding.....
- (b) Clothing.....
- (c) Medicine.....
- (d) Education.....
- (e) Miscellaneous.....

24. Food sources:

- (a) Purchase
- (b) Self-cooked
- (c) Foraging
- (d) Charity
- (e) Hotel Being a cook/waiter
- (f) Sadka/Zakaat

25. How many times do you take food in a day:

- (a) One time
- (b) Two time

- (c) Three time
- (d) More than three time
- (e) No food

26. Sources of fuel for food cooking:

- (a) Wood
- (b) Shrubs
- (c) Coal
- (d) Animal dung
- (e) Kerosene oil
- (f) Electricity
- (g) LPG

27. Do you pay for drinking water/ Bathing/ Sleeping & living space/ Bedding/ Defecation

- (a) Yes
- (b) No
- (c) Security of shop or house

28. What durable goods do you have?

- (a) Mattress
- (b) Cot
- (c) Bed
- (d) Mosquito Net
- (e) Chair
- (f) Table
- (g) Pressure cooker
- (h) Pots
- (i) Stove
- (j) Gas cylinder
- (k) Sewing machine
- (l) Watch
- (m) Iron
- (n) Tape

- (o) Radio
- (p) Cycle
- (q) Rickshaw
- (r) Mobile/
- (s) Telephone
- (t) Electric Fan
- (u) Television
- (v) Freeze
- (w) Scooter and bike
- (x).....

29. Sharing Items:

- (a) Quilts
- (b) Blankets
- (c) Toiletry Items
- (d) Pots
- (e) Scarf/lungi
- (f)

30. How many pairs of clothes you possess?

- (a) One pair
- (b) Two pairs
- (c) Three pairs

31. Do you have a relative or friend who has a house?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

32. Have you ever stayed in a shelter?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

33. How frequently do you stay in shelter in months and years?

- (a) Never
- (b) Less than 1 month

- (c) 1-2 months
- (d) 2-4 months
- (e) 4-6 months
- (f) 6-8 months
- (g) 8-10 months
- (h) 10-12 months
- (i) 1-5 years
- (j) Above 5 years

34. Duration of houselessness in years:

- (a) Since birth
- (b) 1-5 years
- (c) 5-10 years
- (d) 10-15 years
- (e) 15-20 years
- (f) 20-25 years
- (g) 25-30 years
- (h) 30-35 years
- (i) 35-40 years
- (j) 40-45 years
- (k) 45-50 years
- (l) Above 50 years

35. Causes of houselessness:

- (a) No proof of I.D.
- (b) Low income
- (c) High rent
- (d) Mortgage
- (e) Unemployment
- (f) Loss of job
- (g) Remittances to family
- (h) Moved to Kanpur city for job

- (i) Substance abuse
- (j) Substandard housing
- (k) Abandoned by family
- (l) Family support
- (m) Family violence
- (n) Family breakdown
- (o) No family
- (p) No siblings
- (q) No kins
- (r) No friends
- (s) Divorced
- (t) Separated
- (u) Widow
- (v) Overcrowded
- (w) Runaways
- (x) Poverty
- (y) Instability
- (z) High price level
- (aa) Foreclosure
- (bb) Depression
- (cc) Poor health
- (dd) Physical disability
- (ee) Mental illness
- (ff) Social persecution stigmatization
- (gg) Hospital referrals
- (hh) Attraction to glamour of the city
- (ii) House fire
- (jj) Natural calamities
- (kk)

36. Places of living and sleeping in summer, winter and rainy:

- (a) Streets
- (b) Pavements
- (c) Road dividers
- (d) Under ledges of shops or houses
- (e) Under bridges
- (f) Over bridges
- (g) Flyovers
- (h) Subways
- (i) Drainage pipes
- (j) Under staircases
- (k) Courtyard of worship places
- (l) Abandoned buildings
- (m) Working places
- (n) ATMs or banks
- (o) Cinema halls
- (p) Parks
- (q) Shrines
- (r) Graveyards
- (s) Hospitals
- (t) Govt. night shelters
- (u) NGO's night shelters
- (v) Emergency night shelters
- (w) Market corridors
- (x) Railway stations
- (y) Bus stands
- (z).....

37. How many times you have shifted the living places in whole life?

- (a) Never
- (b) Daily
- (c) 1 time

- (d) 2 times
- (e) 3 times
- (f) 4 times
- (g) 5 times
- (h) times
- (i) 7 times
- (j) 8 times
- (k) 9 times
- (l) More than 10 times

38. Did you have uninterrupted sleeping?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

39. If interrupted, what are the reasons of interruptions?

- (a) Noise
- (b) Street light
- (c) Police harassment
- (d) Physical abuse
- (e) Sexual abuse
- (f) Health problem
- (g) Family tensions
- (h) Craving for addiction or hunger
- (i) Fear from theft, violence and death
- (j) Air pollution
- (k) Inclement weather
- (l) Mosquitoes
- (m) Local people torment
- (n) Drunkards
- (o) Traffic
- (p).....

40. Sources of drinking water:

(a)Public

(b)Private

41. Types of drinking water:

(a)Hand pumps

(b)Municipal taps

(c)Tankers

(d)Tube wells

(e)Water coolers

(f) Pitures

(g)Water pouches

42. The distance travelled from place of living in meters for drinking water:

(a)Less than 50 metres

(b)50-100 metres

(c)100-200 metres

(d)200-300 metres

(e)300-400 metres

(f) 400-500 metres

(g)More than 500 metres

(h)Any where

43. Sources of bathing:

(a)Public

(b)Private

44. Nature of bathing sources:

(a)Open

(b)Closed

45. Types of bathing places:

(a)Hand pumps

(b)Municipal tapes

(c) Sulabh complexes

(d)Night shelters

46. The distance travelled from place of living in metres:

- (a) Less than 50 metres
- (b) 50-100 metres
- (c) 100-200 metres
- (d) 200-300 metres
- (e) 300-400 metres
- (f) 400-500 metres
- (g) More than 500 metres
- (h) Any where

47. How frequently do you bath?

- (a) Daily
- (b) 2-3 times in a week
- (c) Once a week
- (d) 1-2 times in a month
- (e) Never

48. Nature of defecation:

- (a) Open
- (b) Closed

49. Types of places for defecation:

- (a) Open fields
- (b) Pavements
- (c) Streets
- (d) Sewerage lines
- (e) Railway tracks
- (f) Makeshift
- (g) Sulabh complexes
- (h) Night shelters toilets
- (i)

50. Activities during non-working days:

- (a) Sleeping

- (b)Gossiping
- (c)Personal maintenance like bathing, brushing teeth, cloths cleaning, etc.
- (d)Meeting friends, relatives or Siblings
- (e)Recreation
- (f) Part time work
- (g).....

51. Recreation activities:

- (a)Television
- (b)Cinema
- (c)Radio
- (d)Road side entertainment
- (e)Picnic
- (f) Card play
- (g).....

52. Bad Habits:

- (a)Smoking
- (b)Drinking
- (c)Chewing tobacco
- (d)Addiction of narcotics drugs
- (e)Abusing
- (f) Gambling
- (g)Stealing
- (h).....

53. Diseases:

- (a)Asthma
- (b)Hypertension
- (c)Tuberculosis
- (d)Diabetes
- (e)Gastroenteritis
- (f) Ulcers

- (g) Skin infestations
- (h) Leprosy
- (i) Dysentery
- (j) Arthritis
- (k) Anemia
- (l) Hepatitis
- (m) Chest pain
- (n) Heart problems
- (o) Dental problems
- (p) Foot problems
- (q) Migraine
- (r) Back aches
- (s) Tooth ache
- (t) Earache
- (u) Glaucoma
- (v) Visual Impairment
- (w) Cancer
- (x) HIV or AIDS
- (y) Cellulites
- (z) Frostbite
- (aa) Stomach ailments
- (bb)

54. Physical disabilities:

- (a) Blindness
- (b) Deaf
- (c) Amputation
- (d) Polio
- (e) Paraplegia
- (f) Handicapped
- (g)

55. Mental Illness:

- (a) Depression
- (b) Psychosis, Paranoia and Cognitive
- (c) Impairment
- (d) Anxiety
- (e) Sleeplessness
- (f) Stress or Trauma
- (g) Loneliness or schizophrenia
- (h) Suicide inclination
- (i)

56. Daily problems faced by you:

- (a) Dispute
- (b) Hunger
- (c) Poor hygiene
- (d) Unemployment
- (e) Low wages
- (f) Lack of shelter
- (g) Lack of clothes
- (h) No fire ground in winter
- (i) Police harassment
- (j) Local people
- (k) Municipal people
- (l) Lack of water
- (m) Lack of toilet
- (n) No payment of work
- (o) Poverty
- (p)

57. Inclement Season:

- (a) Summer season
- (b) Winter season

(c) Rainy season

58. Expressive ties:

(a) Visit parents

(b) Visit siblings/wives

(c) Visit relatives

(d) Close local friend

(e) Close non-local friend

(f) Group of people

(g) No perceived adequacy of ties

(h)

59. Sources of helps in emergency:

(a) Family

(b) Relatives

(c) Friends

(d) Police

(e) NGOs

(f) Govt.

(g) Individual

(h) No one

(i) God

(j)

60. Governmental services availed:

(a) Gifts

(b) School MDM

(c) Ration card

(d) Voter I-card

(e) UID card

(f) BPL card

(g) Bank accounts or Insurance

(h) Houses from IAY and Adarsh housing

(i) Old age pension Widow pension

(j)

61. Need of security from:

(a) Yes

(b) No

62. If yes, from which need of security is required?

(a) Disputes

(b) Murder

(c) Noise

(d) Traffic

(e) Harassment

(f) Aggression

(g) Police harassment

(h) Municipal torment

(i)

63. Attitude of general population behaviour:

(a) Good

(b) Bad

64. People of bad/negative behaviour:

(a) Policemen

(b) Officers

(c) Local people

(d) Gangs

(e)

65. Experience on the occasion of festivals:

(a) Good

(b) Bad

66. Bad experiences on the festival occasions:

(a) National Festivals

(b) Sunday

(c) Ceremonies/ Functions

(d) VIP visits

(e)

67. Information about Family Members:

S. No.	Relation	Age	Sex	M.S.	Literacy	Occupation		Income (Rs.)
						Main	Subsidiary	
1								
2								
3								
4								
5								
6								
7								
8								

Remarks:-----

Dated: -----

Signature of Investigator

GLOSSARY

Band Baja People	Bandsmen who play a musical instrument as a profession.
Banjaras	The scheduled tribes who are migratory and mainly engaged in cobbling work and showing games to earn means of livelihood.
Bastees	Shacks found in irregular settlements in Kolkata.
Bhad Bhujas	A man who parches grain.
Bhandara	A ceremonial feast with great delight made for many people.
Bhubadiyas	The scheduled tribes who are migratory and mainly engaged in roasting food grains
Beedis	Beedi is a local low grade rolled tobacco Indian cigarette.
Cabada	Scrap materials.
Cheri	Shacks found in irregular settlements in Chennai.
Daan	A voluntary gift (as of money, service or lenient attitude) for needy people.
Dhakkad	Jostle which make one's way by, pushing, or shoving.
Dhool	Dust is fine powdery material such as dry earth or pollen that can be blown about in the air.
Dhuan	Smoke is a hot vapour containing fine particles of carbon being produced by combustion.
Dukandars	Salesmen or owners of the shops.
Gadda	Gadda is a soft cushion bag filled with air or mass of padding such as feather, foam, rubber, etc.
Gaddhah	Gaddhah is low lying depression filled-up of waste water.
Gamchha	Gamchha is a traditional Indian towel made up of thin course cotton, fabric, etc.
Haburas	The scheduled tribes who are migratory and mainly engaged in black smith works to earn means of livelihood
Hatas	Hatas is an enclosed area of unhygienic living conditions and not suitable for settlements.
Jholachhap Doctors	Quack is an untrained person who pretends to be a physician and who dispenses medical advice.

Jhopadpattis	Shacks found in irregular settlements in Mumbai.
Jhuggi-Jhoparies	Shacks found in irregular settlements in Delhi.
Khokha	A small shop made of wood for selling basic goods (consumable goods as tobacco, cigarettes, breads, candy, etc.).
Langar	Money or goods offered to the poor people at the time of some occasions.
Lohars	A nomadic tribe involved in the blacksmith trade.
Lungi	Lungi is a sarong-like garment wrapped around and extending to the ankles.
Madaries	The scheduled tribes who are migratory and mainly engaged in cobbling work and showing games to earn means of livelihood.
Nats	The scheduled tribes who are migratory and mainly engaged in cobbling work and showing games to earn means of livelihood.
Pan Masala	Tobacco chewing products and leaves.
Sadhus	Hindu wandering ascetics.
Sadka	An act of atoning for sin or wrongdoing especially by appeasing god.
Silpkars	Artisans.
Sulabh Shauchalaya	Sulabh Shauchalaya is a scavenging-free two-pit pour-flush toilet it is a new concept of maintenance and construction of pay-&-use public toilets, popularly known as Sulabh Complexes with bath, laundry, urinal and defecation facilities.
Zakaat	A particular alms given away by Muslims annually at the rate of 2.5% on net property.

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